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Community College Faculty with Corporate Leadership Experience and Full Range Leadership Theory

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COMMUNITY COLLEGE FACULTY WITH CORPORATE LEADERSHIP
EXPERIENCE AND FULL RANGE LEADERSHIP THEORY

by

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ABSTRACT

Community colleges have developed into vital resources for affordable, easy access, high quality education. Community college instructors with previous leader experience possess the credentials needed to teach their curricula and to lead learning experiences in the classroom. Researchers have found that instructors who display transformational leadership qualities can influence student actions, awareness, and learning outcomes. This study was conducted to explore community college faculty who possess transformational leadership qualities in relation to student extra effort, student perception of instructor effectiveness, and overall satisfaction with the instructor. The conceptual framework is the full range leadership theory which is one of the most broadly used comprehensive leadership theories. The measurement tool used was Avolio and Bass's (2004) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), which measures nine factors of leadership skills through a quantitative survey.

These findings present support for the recognition of the value of transformational leadership in the community college environment. Consistent with the findings of this study, transformational leadership has been viewed as the most revered leadership model in the full range leadership theory. Instructors have the ability to integrate critical components of transformational leadership behaviors to impact the student experience in the classroom, resulting in higher levels of student outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction. The findings add to the body of literature and provide insight into the leadership skills of community college instructors from previous business experience.

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband Don

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF ACRONYMS/ABBREVIATIONS

MEFFSN—Effectiveness of instructor

MEXSN—Student extra effort

MLFI—Laissez-faire leadership instructor

MSATSN—Satisfaction with instructor

MTAI—Transactional leadership instructor

MTFI—Transformational leadership instructor

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

General Background

Students entering the workforce in 2014 have many opportunities before them to gain knowledge, experience, training, and education. These include universities, colleges, community colleges, trade schools, and their own organizations. Although attending a university has long been an accepted expectation for advancement in a career, many changes have occurred over the past century that impact where and how an individual will access higher education (Collins & Roberts, 2012). According to Remington & Remington (2013), it is critical for the nation to have highly educated citizens for a strong democracy. Community colleges have developed into vital resources for affordable, easy access, high quality education along with developmental offerings for the local workforce. According to Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, Whitt, and Associates (2005), the best forecasters of student success are academic preparation and motivation through strong student engagement. This is accomplished through faculty member's arrangement of curriculum and the classroom experience, which contribute to overall satisfaction and retention. This study was conducted to explore community college faculty as leaders in relation to student effort, effectiveness, and overall satisfaction with the instructor.

The National Center for Education Statistics [NCES] (2011) is the principal federal body that collects and analyzes data related to education. In the year 2009-2010 in the United States, there were over 4,500 two- and four-year colleges and universities actively enrolling more than 21million credit and non-credit earning students. This was

1

an increase from 3,200 institutions and 12 million students in 1980. According to Milliron and De Los Santos (2004), "America is becoming a nation of lifelong learners" (p. 107), and this has fostered the strengthening of the community college system. According to Mink (2007), "Community colleges play a critical role in the higher education system" (p. 21).

Community colleges have developed from small community focused organizations in response to the needs of their citizens. With the changes from agriculture to industrial organizations, there was an increased need to educate and train individuals in their new roles to improve performance and increase productivity (Eurich, 1985; Lynton, 1984). The perception was that it is essential to have a highly educated citizenry for a strong democracy (Remington & Remington, 2013). In 1901, Joliet Junior College was the first community college established as a public two-year college in the United States. It was an expansion of high school to provide open-access by offering additional individual career opportunities and enhanced contribution to society for those who were not higher education ready (Drury, 2003; Joliet Junior College, n. d.). "Community colleges have become critical providers of affordable, quality educational and workforce development and play a vital role in the future of the country" (Bechtel, 2010, p. 2). With the expansion of community colleges, instructors in the classroom have been noticeably impacted.

In learning environments, the role of instructor in the classroom is to create an engaged learning environment that is conducive to the highest level of learning possible, whereby students exercise critical thinking and can apply the learning to everyday

experiences for themselves. Although the core subject matter may be at the forefront of the faculty member's mind, fostering inclusion and engagement through successful teaching approaches means communicating this information effectively and efficiently.

The leadership approach in the classroom is distinguished from instructional style by the difference in the emphasis of the instructor on attaining course objectives and impacting student dedication and accomplishment (Fredendall, Robbins, & Moore, 2001). This influence is created as a result of instructors' vision and ability to instill students with the desire to critically think, thereby challenging traditional expectations (Harvey, Royal, & Stout, 2003). Birnbaum (1992) stated faculty must command classroom management and exhibit leadership skills for student engagement, which, in turn, will create an atmosphere conducive for learning.

The measurement of the leadership skills of community college instructors who had previous leadership experience in the private sector environment was addressed in this study. The measurement tool that was used was Avolio and Bass's (2004) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), which measures nine factors of leadership skills through a quantitative survey. The full range leadership construct is one of the most broadly used comprehensive leadership theories. It indicates a broad viewpoint encompassing a variety of leadership styles to identify a range of behaviors from laissez-faire to transformational leadership, each having distinguished contributions to effective and ineffective leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Numerous studies have been completed that indicate effective leadership style is critical for the success of the organization. Identifying and measuring leadership style and effectiveness in the

3

classroom through this study was intended to increase interest in improving instructor

performance and student satisfaction. This awareness should provide superior insight

into the dynamics of leadership in the classroom and provide guidance for leadership

development and recruitment in the future.

Statement of the Problem

This study focused on the relationship between leadership styles and student

outcomes in the community college classroom. Numerous studies have been conducted

to examine leadership in the business environment where impact of leadership

contributes to the advantages of organizations (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass, 1997;

Bass, Avolio & Goodheim, 1987). The atmosphere of the classroom is a social

organization, similar to a business environment, whereby individuals function in formal

and informal social structures, with the instructor in the role of the leader and students as

followers (Bogler, Caspi, & Roccas, 2013). In the first decade of the 21st century, a

number of scholars have investigated the connection between instructors'

transformational leadership behaviors and student education outcomes (Bolkan &

Goodboy, 2009; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Pounder, 2006, 2008a, 2008b, 2008c).

Leadership is a construct that has received much attention with an expansive area

of research. According to Chemers (1997), the concept of observed leadership theory

and the ideals of society originated in the times of Plato or Hobbes. In the 19th century,

philosopher Thomas Carlyle illustrated that great leaders possessed special traits or

characteristics which, in turn, allowed for them to aspire to greatness within their society.

New, more scientific studies of leadership emerged in the early 20th century during which

psychologists created a new perspective in the analysis of leadership by incorporating

development measures of individual differences (Chemers, 1997; Siegrist, 1999).

Although there have been numerous studies of various aspects of leadership, this study

was conducted to examine in-depth the full-range leadership theory and the leadership

experience of community college instructors.

According to Northouse (2004), leadership is "a process whereby an individual

influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 3). It is critical to

understand the change and perspective the study of leadership has encountered over

centuries. There are many perspectives that contribute to the definition of leadership. It

is an interactive event, usually initiated by the leader, where the leader influences the

team to reach the overarching organizational goals and requires both leaders and

followers to interact. The leader creates the communication connection and upholds the

relationship.

Fleishman, Mumford, Zaccaro, Levin, Korotkin, and Hein (1991) scrutinized 65

leadership classification systems that were prevalent from 1940 to 1986 in an effort to

define dimensions of leadership. In their study, they identified two overarching themes

of leadership which were "the facilitation of group social interactions, and objective task

accomplishment" (p. 253). Each relates to managerial actions of sustaining human and

material assets (Fleishman et al., 1991). Another perspective was shared by Chemers

(1997) who defined leadership as the "process of social influence in which one person

can enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task" (p. 1).

Lastly, Hersey (1997) defined leadership as "any attempt to influence the behavior of another individual or group" (p. 16). Each perspective, although not comprehensive, provided a dynamic view of the concept of leadership, shedding light on a vast display of leadership styles and qualities.

According to Seldin (1990), many higher educational instructors journey through their bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degrees and proceed directly into academic positions. He argued that faculty arrives at their institution strong in content and unaware of learning strategies, tactics of teaching or leadership skills for the classroom. Many instructors in the community college environment come to their positions with a diverse background which includes higher education in their chosen field, hands-on experience in organizations, and various leadership qualities.

Community college instructors with previous leader experience possess the credentials needed to teach curriculum and to lead learning experiences in the classroom. According to Green (2009), effective teaching requires active leadership, which in turn makes a positive impact on the students in the classroom. Pounder (2006) argued that universities should exhibit support for instructors who demonstrated teacher leadership by sharing best practices, were dedicated to student learning, and were committed to curriculum enhancement.

<u>Significance of the Study</u>

Fugate & Amey (2000) described the importance for instructors to effectively manage the classroom and facilitate and influence utmost student involvement if they are

6

to augment student learning and impact their future development. Researchers have found that instructors who display transformational leadership qualities can influence student actions, awareness, and learning outcomes. Such faculty illustrates teaching as the articulation of learning instead of the dissemination of information. They influence the learning process by sharing enthusiasm for the subject matter and giving the students career direction (Fugate & Amey, 2000).

Petrie, Lindauer, and Tountasakis (2000) discussed the concept of leaders having shaped their perspective as they developed their skills over a lifetime. In the classroom, faculty must have a broad understanding of what creates growth and development in their students, enabling them to communicate and build relationships that construct a solid learning environment. Thus, concrete introspection may help faculty sharpen their vision as leaders, increasing self-awareness, effectiveness, and productivity.

<div align="center">Conceptual Framework</div>

James MacGregor Burns (1978) led the study of transformational leadership, originally transactional and transforming leadership. Transactional leadership was based on the exchange of rewards guided by self-interest. Transforming leadership was a process that created major change in individuals where morale and motivation were expanded by leaders and followers in a business setting. The work of Burns was advanced to the study of transformational leadership by Bernard Bass (1985) with refined definitions of transformational leadership factors. These included idealized influence also known as charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and

individualized consideration. All aspects of transformational leadership facilitate a level

of effectiveness between leaders and followers (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass, 1985; Burns,

1978) and are transferrable the classroom environment.

The full range leadership construct has gained tremendous popularity among

researchers and practitioners and is one of the most broadly used comprehensive

leadership theories. The label, full range leadership, indicates the wide viewpoint of what

comprises a large variety of leadership styles. These styles have been identified to

capture a broad range of leadership behaviors from laissez-faire to transformational

leadership, each of which have made distinctive contributions to effective and ineffective

leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Individuals who are considered non-leaders display one of two styles: the first is

the laissez-faire leadership style where the leader is considered to be absent or avoidant

of the leadership role (Avolio, 2011; Avolio & Bass, 2004; Northouse, 2004). The other

is referred to as management by exception--passive; in which the leader is reluctant to

engage in a situation until problems become serious and must be addressed (Avolio,

2011; Bass, 1985; Bass, 1997; Chemers, 1997; Northouse, 2004).

Transactional leaders conduct business with their followers in a relationship

where expectations are outlined; once the agreed-upon tasks and good working

relationships are accomplished, rewards are in order. These leaders also tend to use their

power in the organization to influence followers' compliance (Bass, 1985; Bass, 1997;

Bass et al., 1987; Northouse, 2004). The focus of these leaders is on assignments, work

standards, and compliance with the principles of the business (Hood, Poulson, Mason, Walker, & Dixon, 2009).

There are two factors within the transactional leadership style. The first is management-by-exception, active, which is demonstrated when leaders watch followers closely for problems or challenges with their work and corrective action is addressed immediately. The second is contingent reward in which the goals and expectations between leaders and followers are clarified along with the potential rewards or consequences for the performance (Avolio, 2011; Bass, 1985; Chemers, 1997; Northouse, 2004).

Transformational leadership is comprised of four factors, also known as the Four Is. The first factor is idealized influence or charisma. Burns (1978) described charisma as the leader's being authentic, trustworthy and able to articulate and achieve vision. Charismatic leaders command admiration, credibility, respect, and trust from followers and a high level regard for their needs along with ethical and moral conduct (Avolio, 2011; Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Chemers, 1997; Tracey & Hinkin, 1998). The second factor is inspirational motivation. This factor is similar to idealized influence, yet distinct, reflecting quality and emotional appeal of the leader's vision, communicating high expectations, demonstration of commitment to the organizational goals along with inspiration to provide meaning and challenge to their work (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass, 1985; Bass, 1997; Chemers, 1997; Tracey & Hinkin, 1998). The third factor is intellectual stimulation where leaders stimulate, promote, and solicit new, creative and innovative ideas and solutions that challenge their own beliefs and

encourage new approaches for performing work (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass, 1985; Bass, 1997; Chemers, 1997; Tracey & Hinkin, 1998). The fourth and final factor is individualized consideration. Leaders listen attentively and provide a supportive climate that is equitable and satisfying and pay special attention to followers' individual achievement and growth needs. The leader functions more as a coach or advisor, raising the maturity of the follower by delegating and providing challenges and learning opportunities for a high level of actualization (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass, 1985; Bass, 1997; Chemers, 1997; Tracey & Hinkin, 1998).

According to Bass (1996), transformational leadership does not replace transactional leadership; it enhances it. Two contrasting leadership profiles represent the frequency or the depth of an individual's display of leadership. The higher level of effectiveness or the optimal profile is shown as a high level of active transactional and proactive transformational leadership. This is considered to be more effective than lower levels of leadership or non-leadership. The suboptimal profile is portrayed by a high level and depth of leadership styles occurring at the lower end of the full range leadership model (Avolio, 2011). "The important point about the model is that most leaders display all styles of leadership in the model but in differing patterns of frequencies" (Bass, 1996, p. 745). Figure 1 provides suboptimal and optimal profiles of full range leadership theory.
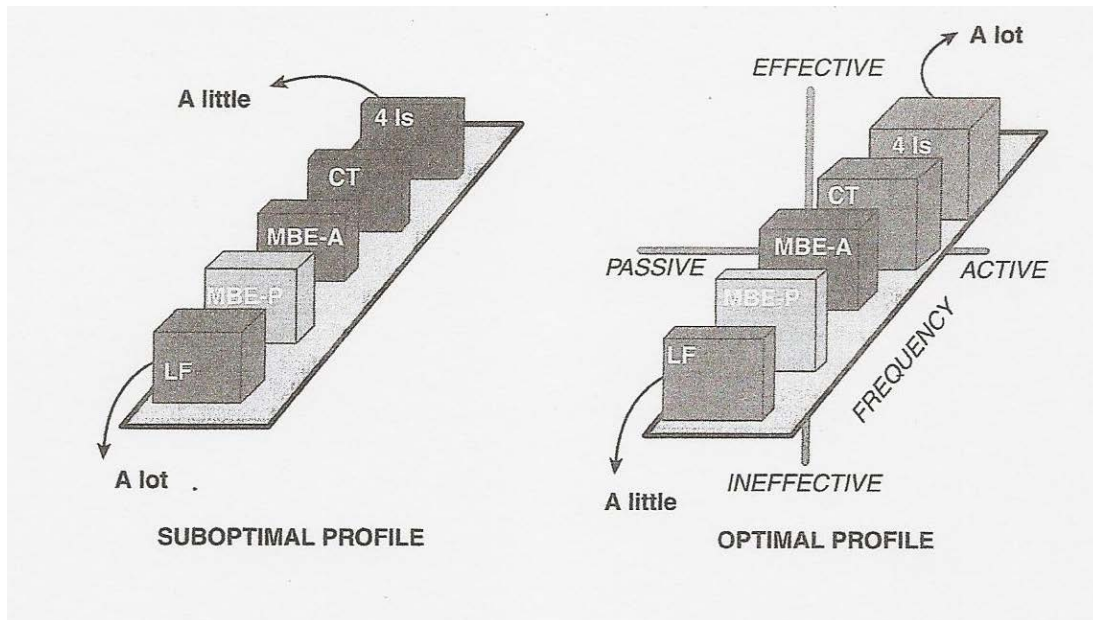
Legend:
    Non-leadership (LF = laissez-faire, MBE-P = management by exception, passive)
    Transactional (MBE-A = management by exception, active; CT = contingent reward)
    Transformational (4Is = idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration)

Note. Reproduced with permission from *Full Range Leadership Development*, by B. J. Avolio, 2011, p. 66. Copyright 2011 by Sage (Appendix A).

Figure 1. Full Range Leadership Theory

       In summary, the full range leadership theory is a popular construct that comprises a broad range of leadership behaviors. According to Bodla and Nawaz (2010), "The full range leadership model is probably the most researched and validated leadership model in use worldwide today" (p. 210). A majority of analyses retrieved in the literature review were relevant to business and corporate operations and provided very limited focus on community college faculty. Moreover, a comprehensive review of the literature did not yield any research that had been conducted using full range leadership theory and community college faculty with leadership experience and background.

11

<center>Research Questions</center>

In order to determine the relationship between leadership skills and student satisfaction, it is essential to answer the following research questions:

1. What relationship, if any, exists between community college faculty's transformational leadership style and the students' (a) willingness to exert extra effort, (b) perception of leader effectiveness, and (c) satisfaction with their instructors?

2. What differences, if any, exist in the full range leadership theory profiles of faculty?

<center>Definitions of Terms</center>

Community College. Also known as junior colleges, community colleges provide accessibility, affordability, and career preparation with two-year associate programs for degree and matriculation into 4-year institutions and certificate programs for workforce development (AACC, 2013).

Leadership. In the business environment, leadership is considered the ability to organize and influence a group of individuals to a common purpose (Bass, 1990).

Matriculation. Used in describing entrance into a postsecondary school to gain a degree, matriculation is part of the enrollment process into a postsecondary school to gain a degree (The Princeton Review, n.d.).

Summary

With over 4,500 two- and four-year colleges and universities actively enrolling more than 21 million credit and non-credit earning students in the United States, there are numerous choices for individuals to make regarding their education and the knowledge they need to begin their career journeys. Community colleges have developed from small community focused organizations into workforce readiness institutions that are critical providers of affordable, quality education playing an important part in higher education (Mink, 2007).

The most effective instructors create an engaging learning environment by utilizing teaching techniques and leadership skills (Birnbaum, 1992). Though leadership is a construct that has been researched and documented for centuries, the scientific study of leadership emerged in the early 20th century (Chemers, 1997). Although described through many perspectives, Northouse's (2004) perspective provides a commonly accepted and understood definition of leadership as "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 3).

This study utilized the full range leadership theory as a conceptual framework to analyze the leadership skills of community college faculty. Full range leadership theory has been broadly used in the business arena as a comprehensive leadership theory that incorporates a wide range of leadership behaviors from laissez-faire to transformational leadership, each contributing to effective and ineffective leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004). This study was conducted to explore community college faculty as leaders in the

classroom in relation to student effort, instructor effectiveness, and overall satisfaction with the instructor.

Chapter 2 contains a review of the literature related to leadership and higher education. The literature reviewed relates to the history of leadership, transformational leadership and full range leadership theory along with an in-depth review of journal articles utilizing measurement of transformational leadership in higher education institutions. Also included is a review of literature related to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire along with the reliability and validity of the instrument. A brief history of community colleges, a discussion of faculty and their experiences, and student issues are presented from various perspectives (national, Florida, and Community College X). The chapter concludes with a discussion of the advances in corporation/university partnerships.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter contains a review of the literature related to community college

faculty and students and full range leadership theory with a focus on leadership in the

community college classroom. Topics that are addressed are the history of community

colleges' faculty, including their business background and leadership experience;

students, the history of leadership, and full range leadership theory, including

transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership styles.

The Growth of Higher Education in the United States

At its inception, higher education was aimed at the elite of American society and

was based in religious, moral, philosophical, and classical studies. Classical curricula

dominated the classes with Latin and Greek as the primary language and involved lecture

and recitation of the material. Later in the 19th century, the laboratory experiment lecture

method was developed whereby instructors showed the material, and students replicated

it to demonstrate their learning. According to Lynton (1984), the industrial age (1820 to

1880) brought mechanization to farming and the production of goods. This decreased the

farming workforce by 20% (Lynton, 1984).

The Morrill Act of 1862 expanded the development of professional schools and

was regarded as preparation for a career in more sophisticated occupations within the

growing manufacturing industries. Schools began to serve a populace living in an

industrial rather than an agricultural environment, and there was a higher demand for science and technology courses (Altbach, Berdahl, & Gumport, 2005; Lynton, 1984; Renn & Reason, 2013). Institutions began to look at the needs of communities and gravitated toward investigation and research for solutions to everyday issues. Demonstrated scientific method in all disciplines with all-purpose curricula had an impact on the overall nation. Increasing federal government funding played a crucial role in the changes to education during the 19th century. There was an increase in specialization in faculty and administrative positions and procedures along with a greater competition for fiscal and human resources (Altbach et al., 2005).

By 1920, only one quarter of the workforce worked in agriculture. Mechanization had so thoroughly reshaped the environment that only a fraction of the workers were now required to fill the nation's grocery baskets. Former farm workers seeking employment in the growing industries spawned by the industrial revolution found that they lacked the necessary skills for successful performance in their new roles. This created a demand for continuous training to improve performance and increase productivity (Eurich, 1985; Lynton, 1984).

Americans living in the 20th century experienced many changes that affected higher education. The Servicemen's Readjustment Act, also known as the GI Bill of Rights, was instituted in 1944 for returning World War II veterans. The benefits included compensation for a higher education degree along with one year of unemployment payment. This enabled numerous veterans to return to school, continue their education and provide for their families. In a very short period of time, the GI Bill changed the

perception of who should attend higher education. The program, which ended in 1956 with 7.8 million WWII veterans having participated , was credited for inspiring entrepreneurial prosperity (Remington & Remington, 2013).

By 1984, a new shift from manufacturing to service industries had occurred in employment. In 1984, the percentage of the workforce employed in service industries was 70% compared to just 30% employed in manufacturing, mining and construction (Lynton, 1984). With these changes, many service jobs required different and higher level skills. Using the six-point skill level ranging from a low of 1 to a high of 6, the increase in the service industry has demanded increased skill levels of 4 and 5 which require an undergraduate degree or some college development (Lynton, 1984). "The development as well as the maintenance of highly educated and skilled human resources are of great economic importance to this country and should represent a shared concern of educators and employers" (Lynton, 1984, p. 15).

Within the college environment, the classroom is a social organization, similar to a business environment, whereby individuals function in formal and informal social structures; with the instructor in the role of the leader (Bogler et al., 2013). The instructor demonstrates transformational leadership by transfer of knowledge, stimulation of student curiosity, outlining a vision, and impacting student academic aspiration (Bogler et al., 2013). Weaver and Qi (2005) stated that "the college classroom, like any other workplace, is a social organization where power is asserted, tasks are assigned and negotiated, and work is accomplished through the interplay of formal and informal social structures" (p. 579).

<u>Leadership</u>

McGregor (1960) theorized that "every managerial decision has behavioral consequences" (p. 4). The theoretical assumptions of management describe the importance for managers to tap human resources in order to bring about improved production and service rendered by their companies. The conventional principles, derived from military and religious background, believe in the unity of command where only one boss will govern an organization. In reality, the relationship between manager and subordinates becomes interdependent as subordinates satisfy needs and achieve organizational goals (McGregor, 1960).

Literature around the topic of leadership has offered varying and multiple perspectives and definitions. Avolio, Walumbwa, and Weber (2009) depicted it "in various models as dyadic, shared, relational, strategic, global, and complex social dynamic" (p. 423). According to Gardner (1995), leaders are "individuals who significantly influence the thoughts, behaviors and/or feelings of others" (p. 6). Leadership has also been described as the ability to organize a group of individuals to a common purpose (Cooper & Pagotto, 2003).

Northouse (2004), described leadership as an individual soliciting and influencing support to accomplish a universal goal. Northouse organized leadership into six categorized groups, each with a separate focus as follows: (a) group processes where the leader is central to all operations; (b) personality perspective where the leader has special traits that influence followers to accomplish tasks; (c) acts or behaviors which indicate approaches that a leader incorporates into the operation to entice change; (d) power

18

relationship whereby leaders use their position power to effect change; (e) goal

achievement where leaders assist the organization and individuals to achieve their goals;

and lastly (f) skills perspective which analyzes skills and knowledge a leader possesses

and how it is used to achieve organizational goals. It is an interactive event where the

leader influences the team to reach the overarching organizational goals. The process of

leadership requires both leaders and followers to interact and is usually initiated by the

leader. The leader creates the communication connection and upholds the relationship

(Northouse, 2004).

<div align="center">*History of Transforming Leadership*</div>

As has been noted, the concept of observed leadership theory and the ideals of

society date back to the times of Plato and Hobbes (Chemers, 1997). The evolution of

leadership theories has progressed from trait theory in the 1930s to contingency and

situational theories of the 1960s and then to transformational theory in the 1980s, which

has continued to dominate in present day. Preliminary work of Burns (1978) and Bass

(1985) encouraged awareness in the thought of transformational and transactional

leadership and the association that materializes between leaders and followers. The

theories of transformational and transactional leadership propose a framework where

managers develop their understanding and capability about leading and directing others

and provide the model needed for encouraging employee development (Bass, 1990).

Collaborative leadership has been strengthened by the transformational leadership

movement, which has been powerful in its contribution to high performing organizations (Mink, 2007).

Charismatic Leadership

Charisma comes from the Greek word 'gifted'. According to Chemers (1997), Max Weber explored the concept of charisma in 1947 whereby leaders exhibit exemplary qualities, demonstrated by a high level of cognitive and emotional connection, confidence, and purpose. Such leaders are able to communicate and articulate the vision and influence followers to complete the mission (Bass, 1990b). Characteristics of charismatic leaders are demonstrated by high levels of certainty and confidence which build confidence and clarity in followers to accomplish the end results (Chemers, 1997). The extension of this theory centers on concerns for production and people in the organization.

Transactional and Transforming Leadership

Burns (1978), created the terms transactional and transforming leadership. He analyzed political leaders regarding how they approach power from traits and actions to working as collaborators and introduced the contrast between leadership and management. According to Burns, transactional leadership was based on the exchange of awards guided by self-interest. Transforming leadership was a process that creates significant change where advancement of morale and motivation is gained by both the leaders and followers. Burns linked the concepts of transactional and transforming

leadership to Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs where the lower-level of needs were identified and satisfied by transactional behaviors on the part of the leader. However, transformational leaders are able to raise their followers to satisfy higher levels of needs resulting in the development of strong performance and future leaders (Nischan, 1997).

Bass (1985) advanced the work of Burns by adding a psychological instrument to the transactional and transforming leadership concept. He established the idea of transformational to improve transforming leadership and added the notion of inspiration and performance. His work led to the collaborative development with Avolio (2002) of the full range leadership theory, which optimistically forecast a variety of performance conclusions. Pounder (2007) noted that transformational leadership has been shown to have a positive influence on the effort and satisfaction of direct reports in the business arena. Transformational leadership is measured regarding three outcomes: the ability of the leaders to generate extra effort on the part of those being led, subordinates' perception of leader effectiveness, and their satisfaction with the leader as measured by the MLQ (Avolio & Bass (2004).

Full Range Leadership

According to Avolio and Bass (2004) full range leadership analyzes leadership from the perspective that transactional and transformational leadership, to varying degrees, both have value in leading teams to high performance. It encompasses an assortment of factors and recognizes that most leaders are likely to have a range of both transformational and transactional leadership styles (McGuire & Kennerly, 2006;

Pounder, 2008c). The additional enhancement of the full range continuum gives a

refined understanding of the range of behaviors from highly transformational leadership

on one end and highly avoidant at the other end (Avolio & Bass, 2002). Demonstrated

leadership ranges from laissez-faire or non-leadership to transactional or passive

leadership and finally to the most effective and active, transformational leadership. The

more constructive elements of transactional leadership such as outlining expectations and

holding individuals accountable are critical in an organization. However,

transformational leadership adds to transactional leadership to move the business in a

positive direction with a broad range of performance outcomes (Avolio, 2011). Avolio

and Bass (2002) observed that "Most leaders' profiles include both transformational and

transactional leadership" (p. 7).

Passive Leadership

　　　　An individual who is considered a non-leader displays two levels of passive

leadership, the first being a *laissez-faire leadership* style, a term coined based on the

French phrase which refers to a "hands-off, let things ride" (p. 179) approach (Northouse,

2004). A laissez-faire leader was considered to be absent or avoidant.

　　　　The second level of passive leadership is *management-by-exception, passive*.

This type of leader is involved in the operation when issues arise, waiting for trouble and

taking swift action in the form of corrective direction or punishment (Avolio, 2011;

Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass, 1985; Chemers, 1997; Northouse, 2004). In the classroom

this would be indicated by a lack of structure, clarity, and feedback on the material taught along with delays in handling student issues, concerns, or material.

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leaders conduct business with their followers in a manner where detailed expectations are outlined. Once the agreed-upon tasks and good working relationships are accomplished, rewards are bestowed. Transactional leaders also tend to use their power in the organization to influence followers' compliance (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Avolio et al., 2009; Bass, 1985; Bass et al., 1987; Northouse, 2004). The focus of the transactional leader is assignments, work standards, and compliance with the principles of the business (Hood et al., 2009). There are two factors within the transactional leadership style. The first factor is *management-by-exception, active*. Active management-by-exception is demonstrated when leaders watch followers closely for problems or challenges with their work, and corrective action is taken immediately (Avolio, 2011; Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass, 1985; Northouse, 2004). From an academic perspective, the instructor would provide negative feedback on assessment of the material and correct problems when they are detected.

Contingent reward, the second factor of transactional leadership, is the clarification of the goals and expectations between leaders and followers along with what the rewards or consequences are for performance (Avolio, 2011; Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass, 1985; Chemers, 1997; Northouse, 2004). The instructor would clarify desired outcomes and negotiate with the student for feedback on the learning of the material.

23

Transactional leadership tends to contribute to contractual obligations by means of merit increases, promotions, bonuses, and praise and recognition. It puts limits on the commitment to organizational goals and job satisfaction which lead to status quo business. It is critical for the leader to establish a rich balance between transactional and transformational leadership for the organization to reach outlined goals and objectives in the classroom (McGuire & Kennerly, 2006).

Transformational Leadership

First defined by Burns (1978), transforming leaders have been described as those who motivate followers to work for transcendental goals. They also work to create change in individuals, groups, and organizations, lifting them to better themselves and attain higher levels of motivation and morality (Burns, 1978). Bass (1985) expanded on the concept of transformational leadership, describing leaders as those who increase the confidence of individuals or groups, move the challenges of followers to achievement and growth rather than just maintaining basic operations. This brings benefits to the organizational goals and mission as well as the collection of the team members. Transformational leaders guide their followers toward higher performance beyond standards and goals through empowerment and principles of morality and responsibility (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Avolio et al., 2009; Bass, 1985; Marsh, 2010). Transformational leaders prefer effectiveness over efficiency, finding new ways of working and new opportunities (Jabnoun & Nassan, 2005). They also stimulate the desire among followers to go outside conventional expectations due to their internal values and ideals (Harvey et al., 2003). Tracy and Hinkin (1994) described

24

the expectation for a transformational leader as developing a strong sense of vision to foster

motivation for followers to reach the organizational mission and objectives. They are

responsible for the proficient use of human resources and must influence continuous

improvement, commitment, and changes to meet and exceed current and future challenges

(Tracy & Hinkin, 1994).

Transformational leadership is comprised of five factors. The first is *idealized*

influence (attributes) where leaders are trustworthy and able to articulate and achieve

vision through admiration, respect, and trust. Instructors orchestrate the curriculum with

an overarching goal or vision to set the expectations. The second factor is *idealized*

influence (behaviors) where ethical and moral conduct is considered regarding the

consequences of decisions, and has a strong sense of purpose. Instructors build trust with

students and articulate innovative solutions by encouraging and motivating students to

reach their goals. The third factor is *inspirational motivation* reflecting quality and

emotional appeal of the leader's vision, communicating high expectations, demonstration

of commitment to the organizational goals along with inspiration to provide meaning and

challenge to the work. Instructors provide meaning and appeal with simple words,

symbols, metaphors, and persuasive arguments. The fourth factor is *intellectual*

stimulation where leaders stimulate, promote, and solicit new, creative and innovative

ideas and solutions that challenge their own beliefs and encourage new approaches for

performing work. In the classroom, instructors enlist students to reexamine their

assumptions and revisit old issues, to reconsider old ways and create new solutions by

encouraging student imagination. The fifth factor is *individualized consideration* where

leaders function more as a coach by listening attentively, providing a supportive climate, and paying attention to individual achievement and growth needs. They work to raise the maturity of the followers by delegating and providing challenges and learning opportunities for a high level of actualization (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Chemers, 1997; Solis, Kupczynski, & Mundy, 2011; Tracey & Hinkin, 1998). The instructor assists students to help themselves by coaching and valuing each individual.

Figure 2 presents a community college leadership timeline over the 20th and early 21st century of the evolution of community colleges, the study of leadership, and governmental interventions. In the timeline, Weber (1947) is shown to have introduced the concept of the charismatic leader which Burns (1978) expanded by describing transactional and transforming leaders. Bass (1985) added more information and detail to both concepts and developed the transformational leadership theory. Most recently Avolio (2011) redefined the full range leadership theory, analyzing leadership from the perspective that transactional and transformational leadership both have value in leading teams to high performance. Full range leadership incorporates a variety of factors and recognizes that most leaders are likely to have a range of both transformational and transactional leadership styles.
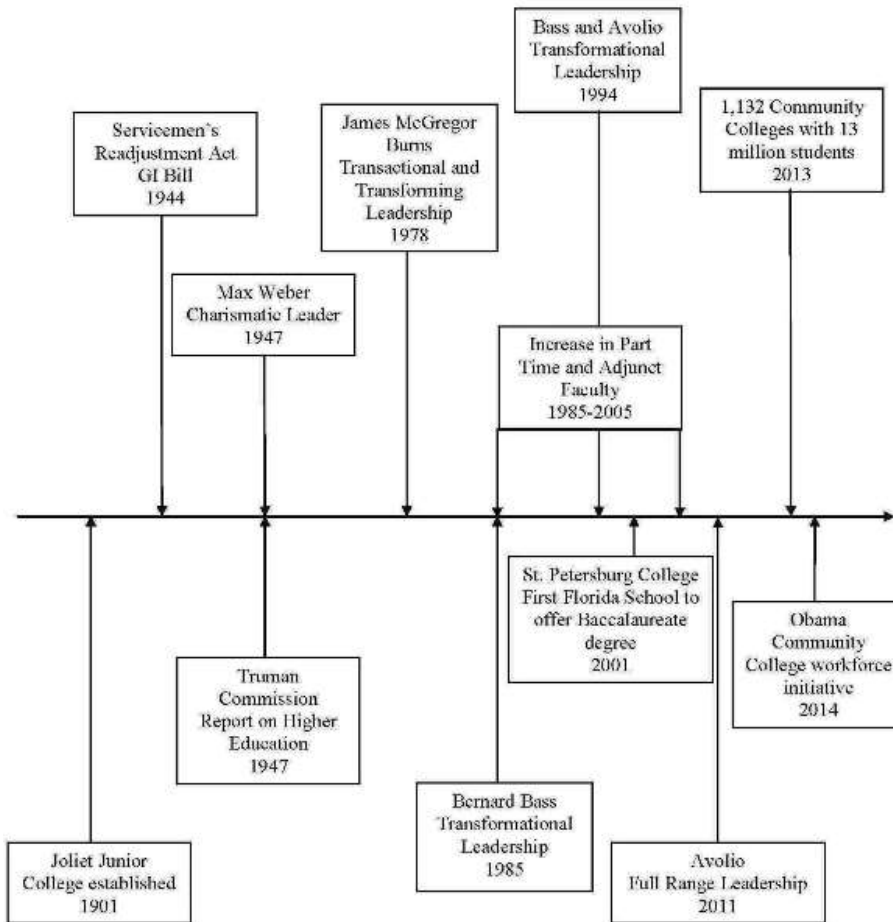
Figure 2. Community College Leadership Timeline

Full range leadership is an essential theory that has been applied in the community college environment. The effectiveness of community college faculty in the classroom, their impact on student effort, and students' overall satisfaction with faculty performance can be directly related to leadership skills acquired inside and outside of the academic institution. Instructors with prior business leadership experience have the ability to use their leadership skills in the academic classroom as they establish a vision,

manage their classrooms, encourage critical thinking in students, and stress the importance of academic achievement.

A select group of researchers has studied the application of the transformational leadership construct from the business sector to higher education settings. Most researchers have utilized the MLQ or a similar instrument to measure transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership factors. This is appropriate as instructors have been found to be similar to business leaders in that they influence, shape future development, and set direction for students. They introduce their students to their career goals through professionalism and collegiality (Harrison, 2011; Pounder, 2006). They also play a critical role in students' expansion of positive attitudes, achievement of goals, and academic success. Instructors who encourage students to put forth higher levels of effort demonstrate their own effectiveness as evidenced in student satisfaction with them (Bodla & Nawaz, 2010; Bolkan & Goodboy, 2009; Hood et al., 2009; Kirkbride, 2006; Pounder, 2008a, 2008b, 2008c).

Full Range Leadership in Business

Transformational leadership and full range leadership have been studied in business but have had limited evaluation in higher education. In this study, leadership was analyzed in one higher educational setting under the umbrella of community colleges, and the background of instructors bringing leadership into the classroom was investigated. There has been a positive correlation between positive transformational leadership and employee willingness to exert extra effort, perceptions of leader

effectiveness and employee satisfaction. The application of this construct has been

demonstrated in numerous studies. Kanste, Kääriäinen, and Kyngäs (2009) tested the

universal application of the full range leadership theory in the health care and nursing

field with nurse managers in a Finnish healthcare organization. They found that the

promotion of transformational leadership resulted in a higher level of extra effort exerted

which was sustained one year later (Kanste et al., 2009).

In a study of the nursing profession, Leach (2005) examined the transformational

leadership relationship between nurse executives and the organizational commitment of

hospital registered nurse teams. Organizational commitment was defined as "a strong

belief in the organization's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on

behalf of the organization and a strong desire to maintain membership in the

organization" (p. 230). It was found that nurse executives who exhibited

transformational leadership skills had a direct positive influence on staff commitment. It

was considered important to create a transformational leadership development plan for

executives to cultivate the participation of staff with their leaders and create resourceful

ways to engage nurses in the decisions that affect their environment (Leach, 2005).

Morrison, Jones, and Fuller (1997) researched transactional and transformational

leadership with nurse managers, correlating empowerment and overall job satisfaction.

Empowerment reflects increased productivity created by clear objectives, authority and

shared control of the mission. It was found that both transactional and transformational

leadership were positively related to job satisfaction. Transformational leadership was

optimistically linked to empowerment with a very high correlated coefficient of 0.41 of empowerment and job satisfaction (Morrison et al., 1997).

Transformational Leadership in the Classroom

According to Kirkbride (2006), the full range leadership model, used in business worldwide, has been validated through extensive research. Though limited, there have also been some studies utilizing transformational leadership measures in higher education (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2009). Similar to their business counterparts, instructors influence, shape future development, set direction, and introduce students to their career goals (Harrison, 2011). Pounder (2006) scrutinized the relevancy of transformational classroom leadership as an expansion of the teacher leadership construct comprised of formal organization, instructional dimension of the role, and the expression of leadership capabilities grounded in professionalism and collegiality.

Instructors who demonstrate full range leadership characteristics play a key role in students' developing positive course-related attitudes (Harvey et al., 2003). Transformational leadership has been associated with follower motivation and has been shown to contribute to improved performance. Both transformational and transactional styles have had a positive impact on the achievement of desired goals and objectives (Jabnoun & Hassan, 2005). Pounder (2008a) linked strong evidence of follower effort to improved academic achievement at both K-12 and higher education levels. According to Hood et al. (2009), transformational and transactional leadership styles are not deemed mutually exclusive and both styles contribute to a positive learning environment.

Visionary leadership contributes to transformational education, which results in overall success with the course.

Tracey and Hinkin (1998) defined transformational leadership in relation to managerial practices. They conducted a study to analyze transformational leadership in a corporate higher educational setting and described the controversies that surround the business concepts of leadership and management. They concluded that both constructs employ similarities and differences and are required for an effective operation (Tracey & Hinkin, 1998).

The variables of transformational leadership have been practically tested in educational situations and connected to positive student results (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2009; Pounder, 2008a, 2008b, 2008c; Walumbwa et al., 2004). Instructors who display full range leadership qualities have been found to positively enhance student behaviors, insight, and learning results by building trust and providing vision, support and encouragement. This results in overall higher levels of student engagement, extra effort, a higher level of perception of the instructor effectiveness, all of which lead to overall satisfaction with the class and instructor (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2009; Harrison, 2011; Walumbwa et al., 2004). Transformational leadership also has been shown to have a positive effect on faculty by lower turnover rates, a higher level of satisfaction with the job, increased empowerment and increased commitment to the university (Harrison, 2011).

Leadership in the military, administrative setting, and in business has been studied for decades. The results of studies have indicated that great leaders are able to lead a

"group of people toward a common goal while simultaneously demonstrating flexibility, empathy, vision and diplomacy" (Yacapsin, 2006, p. 55).

Research regarding leadership in the higher education classroom, however, has been minimal, and this provides a rationale for administering the MLQ to faculty and students. Results from the MLQ should assist in the identification of leader traits considered most beneficial for further enhancing instructors' teaching effectiveness and student satisfaction in community college higher education classrooms. This information may build additional credibility and add value to the previous leadership experience instructors bring to the classroom. All aspects of the learning environment are influenced by instructors' leadership skills, including the format, climate, and the extent of the student experience (Yacapsin, 2006). It follows that blending subject expertise with leadership skills can increase students' desire to put forth effort to learn the material, their perception of the effectiveness of an overall satisfaction with instructors.

Transformational Leadership Studies

In a study conducted by Harvey et al. (2003), transformational leadership measures in the classroom were applied. The premise was to analyze a number of classroom components ranging from students' satisfaction, respect, trust, and effectiveness of instructor to involvement in the classroom. The MLQ was used to measure the three dimensions of leadership with word changes made to reflect a teaching/instructor versus a work/supervisor context. This included 17 charisma, seven consideration, and three intellectual stimulation items. The results indicated

that the transformational leadership construct was applicable to relationships between instructor and students in a university setting and had impacted student reactions to their environment (Harvey et al., 2003).

In their research of transformational leadership, Bass et al. (1987) conducted a study with 211 students who were given a project to analyze and report out on a leader in whom they were interested. After the project was complete, the students were surveyed utilizing the MLQ and were asked to evaluate the leadership qualities of the individuals they had written about. A total of 68 leaders were evaluated, and students identified skills in each of the leaders. It was found that "both types of leadership (i.e., transformational and transactional) are needed for the maintenance and growth of complex organizational systems" (Bass et al., 1987, p. 15).

Walumbwa, Wu, and Ojode (2004) evaluated the effects of gender on the perception of instructor transformational versus transactional leadership skills. The full range leadership theory framework was applied to identify the dynamics that affected classroom relationships between the teachers and students. There was a direct relationship identified for each of the leadership qualities compared in instructor/student components. Each trait that would normally be applied in the business setting was compared in the instructor/student relationship. The statistical analysis showed there was a significant relationship between leadership style and instructional outcomes. There were no statistically significant predictors of instructional outcome when instructor gender was considered (Walumbwa et al, 2004).

Leithwood and Jantzi (2006) were challenged to analyze development of school leaders. This study was conducted utilizing data for the England National Literacy and Numeracy Strategies and was structured to analyze the effects of transformational leadership on teachers, students, classroom management, and learning outcomes. The transformational leadership qualities identified were motivation, capacities, and work settings along with classroom practices and student achievement. The results of the tests indicated strong direct effects on teachers' motivation and environment and a moderate effect on classroom practices (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006).

Pounder (2007) conducted a study in one course at the Business School of Lingnan University in Hong Kong. The MLQ was used, although the wording was modified for a university setting. The findings indicated value in developing transformational leadership qualities in university teachers. There was a high correlation between leadership scales and each of the classroom leadership outcomes. One limitation of this study was the evaluation of teachers and students in only one business course (Pounder, 2007).

Pounder (2008a, 2008b, & 2008c), in publishing three articles about his Lingnan University study, identified transformational leadership as the leading style to be measured. The MLQ was modified replacing managers with instructors and followers with students, analyzing the three leadership scales of transactional, transformational and laissez-faire leadership in the classroom (Pounder, 2008a). The study was conducted with five instructors and 18 classes for a total of 876 students over a three-year period of time. Each study focused on a different measurement unit. The first criticized the value

of the student evaluation of teaching (SET) tool used in most universities and argued that there was value in looking to the leadership skills of teachers for a higher level of data to compare student outcomes in the classroom. It was found that the transformational leadership characteristics positively correlated with classroom leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction. Pounder (2008a) found that an instructor with transformational leadership skills stimulated ethical conduct, and encouraged student intellectual curiosity and creativity. He recommended that institutions should explore the opportunity to gain additional levels of insight into the classroom dynamics outside of the typical SET model (Pounder, 2008a).

In his second article, Pounder (2008b) analyzed the Hong Kong study as it related to transformational classroom leadership and desirable leadership outcomes. Results indicated that transformational leadership was the strongest leadership quality relating to instilling ethical behavior in students and stimulating academic effort (Pounder, 2008b). The third article focused on the relevance of the full-range leadership model in this setting as compared in both the Asian and western framework. The researcher likened the university classroom to a "small organization with the teacher as the leader and the students as subordinates" (p.2). Pounder (2008c) also showed there was a powerful relationship with student learning and development and the benefits of success in modern companies who were moving toward becoming learning organizations. He compared the Hong Kong study with two U.S. studies finding general consistency across the two cultures. His findings continued to support "Bass's (1997) contention that the

transformational-transactional leadership paradigm is generalizable across organizations and cultures" (Pounder, 2008c, p. 131).

Hood et al. (2009) conducted a study of leadership styles in the classroom and their effects on traditional and non-traditional students, specifically the rewards or punishments given and how they transform students into leaders. The study was conducted with 150 students of which 41% were traditional and 56% were nontraditional students. Student perceptions and appreciation of transactional and transformational leadership styles were measured. The tool that was used was a modified MLQ, the Professorial Leadership Style Questionnaire (PLSQ). The findings indicated that all students preferred charismatic leadership in the classroom yet appreciated a mix of leadership styles both transforming and transactional regarding performance with assignments.

According to Bolkan and Goodboy (2009), teachers must enhance student learning by presenting the curriculum through student involvement and conducting effective classroom management. Typically, researchers have discovered that transformational leadership skills in the classroom create an environment that positively influences student performance and perceptions of the instructor and curriculum. This study utilized a number of tools including the MLQ (Avolio & Bass, 1995) which measured cognitive and affective learning and student communication satisfaction. A positive relationship was found between transformational leadership, learning results, a higher level of participation and an increase perception of teacher credibility, especially

with regard to individualized consideration when students believed they were treated according to their individual wishes and competence (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2009).

In a study conducted by Bodla and Nawaz (2010), the historical perspective of the evolution of leadership and the theorists who had studied its different aspects were identified. They started with trait, behavioral, contingent, and full range leadership theories. The latest version of full range leadership theory, though often applied in organizations, had rarely been applied in higher education. They examined the theory in both public and private institutions with instructors and administration of higher education in Pakistan. They found that there was a statistically significant difference in the private and public segment with the public individuals more motivated by transactional leadership where rewards were given for services rendered. There was no statistically significant difference in the transformational leadership impact between private and public sectors (Bodla & Nawaz, 2010).

Kirkbride (2006) expressed an interest in the development of workshops to increase competence in the full range leadership skills including an overview of the theory. In his workshops, instructors are exposed to tools to analyze the environment and completion of the 360 degree MLQ tool to identify which factors are interpreted in their leadership style. The workshops include personal coaching to expand on strengths and approaches to mitigate weaknesses (Kirkbride, 2006). According to Hood et al. (2009), transformational and transactional leadership styles are not deemed mutually exclusive of one another, and both styles contribute to a positive learning environment. Visionary

37

leadership contributes to transforming the educational experience, which results in higher overall success rates with higher education course work.

Table 1 provides a summary of the higher education transformational leadership literature reviewed that utilized a version of the MLQ. In the review, a relationship between leadership style and instructional outcomes was observed. Transformational leadership characteristics were positively correlated with classroom leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction. Although there was a correlation of leadership trait impact on instructional outcomes, documentation of the origins of these leadership skills was not evident.

Table 1

Summary of Published Studies Testing the Factor Structure of Transformational Leadership in the Classroom

Author/s	Version	Country	Organization	Summary of Findings
Bass, Avolio, and Goodheim (1987)	Form 5S, 1985	United States	Higher Education	It was found that "both types of leadership (i.e. transformational and transactional) are needed for the maintenance and growth of complex organizational systems" (p.15).
Bodla & Nawaz (2010)	Form 5X, 2004	Pakistan	Higher Education	It was found there was a statistically significant difference in the private and public segment with the public individuals were more motivated by transactional leadership where rewards are given for services rendered. There was no significant difference in the transformational leadership between private and public sectors.
Bolkan & Goodboy (2009)	Form 5X, 2004	United States	Higher Education	The results indicated a positive relationship between transformational leadership, learning outcomes, participation and perception of teacher credibility especially in regards to individualized consideration, where the students felt they were treated according to their individual wishes and competence.
Harrison (2011)	Form 5X, 1997 along with Cognitive Learning Indicators Scale, Affective Learning Scale, Teacher Credibility Scale, Student Communication Satisfaction Scale, and Social Desirability Scale.	United States	Higher Education	It was found that Instructor transformational behaviors are significant predictors of student cognitive learning, student affective learning, and student perception of instructor credibility in online courses.

Author/s	Version	Country	Organization	Summary of Findings
Harvey, Royal, & Stout (2003)	Form 5X, 2000	United States	Higher Education	The results indicated that Transformational leadership construct has applied relationships between instructor and students in a University setting impacting student reactions to their environment.
Hood, Poulson, Mason, Walker, & Dixon (2009)	Modified MLQ called the Professional Leadership Style Questionnaire (PLSQ)	United States	Higher Education	The findings indicate all students preferred charismatic leadership in the classroom yet appreciated a mix of leadership styles both transforming and transactional regarding performance with assignments.
Pounder (2007)	Form 5X, 2004 modified with instructors/students verbiage	Hong Kong	Higher Education	There was a high correlation with leadership scales and each of the classroom leadership outcomes.
Pounder (2008a)	Form 5X, 2004 modified with instructors/students verbiage	Hong Kong	Higher Education	It was found that the transformational leadership characteristics positively correlated with classroom leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction. He found that an instructor with transformational leadership skills stimulates ethical conduct, encourages student intellectual curiosity and creativity.
Pounder (2008b)	Form 5X, 2004 modified with instructors/students verbiage	Hong Kong	Higher Education	The study indicated that transformational leadership was the strongest leadership quality relating to instilling ethical behavior in students and stimulating academic effort.
Pounder (2008c)	Form 5X, 1993 modified with instructors/students verbiage	Hong Kong	Higher Education	Pounder also shows a powerful relationship with student learning and development and the benefits of success in modern companies who are moving toward being a learning organization. He compares the Hong Kong study with two US studies, (Ojode, 1999 and Walumbwa & Ojode, 2000) of which general consistency was found across the two cultures.

Author/s	Version	Country	Organization	Summary of Findings
Tracey & Hinkin (1998)	Form 5X, 1990 along with four (4) scales from the MPS and leader effectiveness tool.	United States	Higher Education/Corporate University	The study indicated a positive dissimilarity between transformational leadership and managerial practices. The combination transformational leadership measures accounted for a large segment of the discrepancy in the evaluation of leader effectiveness.
Walumbwa, Wu, & Ojode (2004)	Form 5X, 2004	United States	Higher Education	There was a significant relationship between leadership style and instructional outcomes. There were no statistically significant predictors of instructional outcome from instructor gender.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

The present study employed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) form 5X short to measure leadership skills in the community college classroom. Avolio and Bass, (1995) developed the MLQ to measure effective and ineffective leaders by identifying transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership approaches. The tool measures nine behaviors including five transformational behaviors; idealized influence attributes, idealized influence behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration; two transactional behaviors, including contingent reward, management-by-exception (active), and two passive-avoidant leadership, including management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire. The MLQ items are based on a five-point scale ranging from 0 to 4 where 0 = not at all and 4 = frequently, if not always. The use of MLQ has demonstrated a significant relationship between followers' ratings of their leader's effectiveness, and it also measures leadership distinctiveness that corresponds to a broad range of leadership traits (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Tracey & Hinkin, 1998; Walumbwa et al., 2004). It generates feedback from respondents on "self reported willingness to exert extra effort, perception of leader's effectiveness, and satisfaction with the leader" (Frittz, 2005, p. 3). The instrument has been structured to serve as a 360 degree development tool in the business environment. For this study, however, its use was in the higher educational arena and was limited to gathering data from instructors and their students over a one-semester time period.

Limitations of Full Range Leadership Theory

The concept behind full-range leadership is that there is an assemblage of leadership styles ranging from laissez-faire, also known as non-leadership, to transformational, which, according to a review of research studies, is the most effective of leadership styles. That having been said, the full range leadership theory continues to be scrutinized. Bass (1990b) had concerns regarding the integration of full range leadership theory to multiple situations and cultures as compared to other contingency theories that specifically identify different behaviors and situations. In later studies, Bass and Avolio (1993) addressed concerns regarding the challenges of cognitive biases with requirements of some factors that were connected with transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

Tracey and Hinkin (1998) outlined a number of concerns regarding Bass and Avolio's (1993) theoretical and empirical research, the first of which was that a conceptual distinction between transformational and other types of leadership had not been clearly articulated. According to Tracey and Hinkin (1998), although Bass and Avolio described the Four Is (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation) their definitions did not distinguish the behaviors for clarification of the outcomes of leader behavior. In contrast, Tracey and Hinkin (1998) believed that the multifactor leadership questionnaire gave a clearer empirical distinction of the Four Is. Antonakis, Avolio, and Sivasubramaniam (2003) argued that full range leadership theory needed to expand on the analyses of strategic leader-follower purpose and the whys behind each of the behaviors; combining both

qualitative and quantitative methods, including the addition of four factors (Antonakis et al., 2003). Although each of these limitations highlight areas that could expand upon the multifactor leadership questionnaire, the overall research results specify that the instrument is valid and reliable and sufficiently measures the nine components of full range leadership theory.

Outcomes

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire showcases three outcomes of transformational leadership. They are: subordinate extra effort, effectiveness of leader, and satisfaction with leader performance (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass, 1985, 1990a).

Extra Effort

According to Avolio and Bass (1995) the definition of "Extra Effort" is the extent to which individuals exert physical or mental power beyond that which is expected. Researchers have been interested in identifying the causes that make a positive impact on the eagerness of followers to put forth effort past the basic requirements to remain employed. According to Bass (1990b), extra effort refers to a variable that indicates the degree to which the follower puts forth effort beyond the expected. McGregor (1960) argued that rather than treating work as an obligation, individuals would be inspired to execute increased performance if they were trusted and treated as if they actually benefited from work with job enrichment, growth, and recognition.

Researchers studying transformational leadership theory consistently discovered extra effort was negatively correlated with passive leadership and positively associated with the demonstration of transformational leadership. Three questions on the MLQ are linked to the outcome of extra effort, two of which follow: the leader "gets me to do more than I expected to do" and "increases my willingness to try harder" (Avolio & Bass, 1995, p. 5).

Effectiveness

When analyzing leaders, those who are more effective are able to accomplish the organizational goals through an orchestrated process. Measurement and feedback is gained by the level and efficiency for achieving outlined goals and objectives. "Since the primary goal of most organizational managers is to plan, organize, lead and control, the effectiveness of managers is directly related to the performance of their subordinates" (Nischan, 1997, p. 55).

Bass (1985) demonstrated that transformational leaders are more effective than transactional leaders in meeting job related needs. The MLQ, used by many researchers, has consistently yielded information that subordinates who categorize their leaders as transformational claim their leaders are more effective in representing their group and meeting organizational requirements than those of transactional leaders (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Four questions on the MLQ are linked to the outcome of effectiveness, two of which include are: the leader "is effective in meeting my job-related needs" and "leads a group that is effective" (Avolio & Bass, 1995, p. 5).

Job satisfaction is the result of a person's evaluation of how authentic job experiences measure up to custom-made expectations. The work must be stimulating, interesting and significant to achieve job satisfaction (Judge, 2000; Nischan, 1997). Locke (1976) described job satisfaction as the "result from the perception that one's job fulfills or allows the fulfillment of one's important job values" (p. 1307). Most individuals want work that brings a sense of accomplishment, autonomy and growth with fair and competitive wages. They also expect a safe and convenient environment and peers who share similar values and expectations. Leaders are expected to be fair, honest, and competent in supporting the organization's goals and have respect for employee welfare (Henne & Locke, 1985). Two questions on the MLQ relate to the outcome of satisfaction including the following: the leader "uses methods of leadership that are satisfying" and "works with me in a satisfactory way" (Avolio & Bass, 2004, p. 5).

Although the MLQ has been utilized primarily in the business sector, 12 uses of the instrument in higher education were reviewed for the present study. In each of the 12 studies, there was a relationship between instructors' leadership styles and the outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction. Though strong relationships were apparent in the research reviewed, understanding of the instructor experiences and knowledge that were brought to the classroom was missing. The questions that were addressed in the present study were intended to illuminate the leadership styles of community college instructors, their prior business leadership experiences, and their impact on student outcomes.

Community Colleges

The University is "an education institution of large size which affords instruction of an advanced nature in all main branches of learning" (Brubacher & Rudy, 2008, p. 143). In contrast, community colleges developed as community focused organizations in response to the needs of their citizens. With the changes from agriculture to industrial organizations, there was an increased need to educate and train individuals in their new roles to improve performance and increase productivity (Eurich, 1985; Lynton, 1984). The perception was that it is essential to have highly educated citizenry for a strong democracy (Remington & Remington, 2013).

Established by William Rainey Harper, Jr. the president of the University of Chicago and J. Stanley Brown in 1901, Joliet Junior College was the first community college and at the time of the present study was the oldest continuously operating public two-year college in the United States. It was an expansion of high school to provide open-access by offering a "fifth and sixth year of study beyond high school that was comparable to the first two years of college" (Joliet Junior College, 2014, p. 1) for those who were not higher education ready (Drury, 2003; Joliet Junior College, 2014). Community colleges were typically small, enrolling 150 students with close student-faculty relationships with academic and extracurricular activities (American Association of Community Colleges, 2014a). Higher education was also perceived to add to an individual's future career and contribution to society (Drury, 2003). Community colleges have, over time, become critical providers of affordable services designed to meet educational and workforce developmental needs of the nation's diverse communities

(Bechtel, 2010). "Community colleges have become and will continue to play a vital role in the future of the country" (Bechtel, 2010, p. 2).

Over the past 100 years, the community college system has developed into a link "between high school graduates, a two-year degree, a four-year college degree, and workforce training" (Bechtel, 2010, p. 1). Milliron and De Los Santos (2004) suggested that community colleges were a fundamental part of the educational structure, were projected to remain a future national education and economic advantage, and were an influential and broad institution of "educational, economic, and social dynamics" (p. 106), providing for individual and professional ambitions. In their limited geographical regions, community colleges have become the symbol of lifelong learning. They have also gained a reputation for being able to meet the workforce needs of the community in a nimble and resilient fashion that has served the U.S. economy well over time (Milliron & De Los Santos, 2004).

The Growth and Development of Community Colleges Nationally

According to the American Association of Community Colleges [AACC] (2014c), community colleges, also known as junior colleges, provide higher education with two-year associate programs along with workforce development with vocational certification. The outstanding features include a more economical choice over four-year schools and open admission. They have been welcoming to part-time and local students and have offered a variety of professional certifications. The AACC reported approximately 1,132 community colleges in the United States including 986 public, 115

independent and 31 tribal schools serving 13 million students. The AACC's most recent

data for the 2013-2014 year collected indicated that community colleges enrolled 45% of

all undergraduates in that year (AACC, 2014b). Demographic data indicated that

students were predominately adult, first-generation in higher education, of color, and

considered low-income. Although a majority (62.1%) of the community college student

population was comprised of traditional 18-24 age students, 37.9% were 25 years or older

(Fike & Fike, 2008; Horn & Nevill, 2006; Mink, 2007; Nevarez, Wood, & Penrose 2013;

Solis et al., 2011).

      Community colleges have typically offered three degrees: the Associate of

Science (A.S.), as terminal occupational credential; the Associate in Applied Science

(A.A.S.), and the Associate in Art (A.A.) degree, both of which enable matriculation into

a four-year institution (Mink, 2007). Community colleges have also extended

opportunities for non-credit community services, continuing education, and workforce

development opportunities which impacts the curriculum and institutional enrollments

(Renn & Reason, 2013).

      In 1947, the federal government solidified recognition of the critical role

community colleges play in higher education with the Truman Commission Report on

Higher Education. The report identified the importance of "public postsecondary

education for all Americans, regardless of race, creed, color, sex, or economic status"

(Smith, 1997, p. 1264).

      Many changes during the 20th century affected higher education, especially

community colleges. The Servicemen's Readjustment Act, also known as the GI Bill of

Rights was instituted in 1944 for returning World War II veterans. This enabled numerous veterans to return to school, increase their education, and provide for their families. In a very short period of time, the GI Bill changed the perception of who should attend higher education (Remington & Remington, 2013).

The growth of community colleges doubled during the 1960s and 1970s, from 677 institutions in 1959 to 1,234 by 1979. This growth was a direct result of open-door processes whereby students had the ability to matriculate without prior schooling or knowledge, low tuition, diverse student goals and abilities and an increase in part-time faculty (Levin, Cox, Cerven & Haberler, 2010). Freeman (2007) expressed the belief that efforts of gaining educational access for the underserved would impact the gross domestic product by an estimated $230 billion including tax revenues along with a decrease in negative community impact of poverty, welfare, and Medicaid.

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, leadership in higher education classrooms is important for student engagement and satisfaction; and although transformational and transactional leadership are both important, transformational leadership has been identified as the more effective of the two leadership styles. Additionally, full range leadership theory, with its application in the classroom, has been credited with creating a higher level of learning outcomes.

Community colleges employ a considerable number of part-time faculty, many of whom bring a rich background of business leadership experience to the classroom. According to Rifkin (2008), "the community college's open-access mission places the responsibility of student success in the hands of the faculty" (p. 2). The intent of the

researcher was to study faculty to learn more about their prior experience and how their experience and knowledge benefit students in community college classrooms. Better understanding how faculty perceive themselves and are perceived by students could enhance credibility, success, and respect in the classroom for faculty and the diversity of their prior experience.

The Growth and Development of the Florida College System in Florida

Though the Florida Community College Schools started with the Palm Beach Junior College in 1933, it was not until 1946 that additional colleges were added to the Florida public two-year system. Table 2 shows the 28 community colleges that eventually comprised the Florida College System and the year that each became part of the statewide system.

In 1955, the Community College Council was established and oversaw the master plan for a system of Florida public colleges (Florida Department of Education, 2014). With 65% of Florida high school graduates attending one of the Florida State Colleges, it provided the primary access to higher education in the state. This was further evidenced by 82% of freshman and sophomore minority students' attending one of Florida's 28 state colleges (Florida Department of Education, 2012). The mission of the institution which served as the site in this study was to "serve the community by providing a learning-centered, high-quality educational institution that anticipates and meets the needs of the community by providing a comprehensive range of programs and services" (Community College X of Florida, 2014).

Table 2

Florida College System: State and Community Colleges

College	Year Established
Palm Beach State College	1933
St. Petersburg College	1947*
Chipola College	1948**
Pensacola State College	1947
Gulf Coast State College	1957
College of Central Florida	1957
Daytona State College	1958
State College of Florida, Manatee-Sarasota	1958
North Florida Community College	1958
St. Johns River State College	1958
Brevard Community College	1960
Broward College	1960
Indian River State College	1960
Miami Dade College	1960
Edison State College	1962
Florida Gateway College	1962
Lake-Sumter Community College	1962
Northwest Florida State College	1964
Polk State College	1965
Florida Keys Community College	1966
Florida State College at Jacksonville	1966
Santa Fe College	1966
Seminole State College of Florida	1966
South Florida Community College	1966
Tallahassee Community College	1967
Valencia College	1967
Hillsborough Community College	1968
Pasco-Hernando Community College	1972

Note. Reproduced with permission of the Florida Department of Education (Appendix B)
* St. Petersburg Junior College was established in 1927 as a private institution and became part of Florida's public system in 1947. The name was changed to St. Petersburg College in 2001.
** Chipola Junior College was established in 1947 as a private institution and became part of Florida's public system in 1948. The name was changed to Chipola College in 2003.

Community College Baccalaureate Degree

Many community colleges have developed and matured into high caliber institutions while remaining connected to the local community interests. This evolution has been aided by articulation agreements with four-year institutions that have eased the credit transfer and student progression toward a bachelor's degree (Levin, 2004; Renn & Reason, 2013). Beginning in 1970, legislative initiatives, although rare, established baccalaureate degrees in select community college settings predominately to support the nation's workforce needs in manufacturing technology (Remington & Remington, 2013; Renn & Reason, 2013). The demand of preparing a globally competitive workforce was driven by local communities and governments (Levin, 2004). This impacted the perspective and vision of many two-year institutions that have strengthened their credentials and altered their identities as they began to address an increasing demand by the middle class to attain baccalaureate degrees (Levin, 2004).

This changing demand resulted in the development of the Community College Baccalaureate Association in 1999 which served as an influential advocacy organization (Remington & Remington, 2013). Although the demand for baccalaureate degrees had not been substantial in much of the United States, the Florida College System experienced tremendous growth and change. In 2001, St. Petersburg College was the first community college to make a change to provide for the granting of the baccalaureate degree. This change has led the state to become a model, addressing the needs for nurses, teachers, and business technology managers. At the time of the present study, 25 of the 28 community colleges were awarding baccalaureate degrees in workforce programs in

the State of Florida (Florida Department of Education, 2014). The increase in community colleges made an impact on faculty in higher education.

Higher Education Faculty

The professor is typically responsible for guiding what is to be learned, categorizing the exercises and readings, establishing the climate, and determining how student performance will be calculated (Weaver & Qi, 2005). Fugate and Amey (2000) have noted that faculty describe teaching as the articulation of learning rather than the dissemination of information. They influence the learning process by sharing enthusiasm for the subject matter and giving students career direction. With learning at the vanguard, instructors develop the curriculum, utilizing the most supportive strategies and design process (Sipple & Lightner, 2013).

According to Kuh et al. (2005), the best predictors of student success are academic preparation and motivation through strong student engagement. Faculty arrangement of curriculum and the classroom experience contribute to the overall satisfaction and retention of students (Kuh et al., 2005). These observations were in agreement with Braxton's (2000) opinion that students will respond to faculty who build relationships and shape student experiences within and beyond the classroom.

According to Seldin (1990), faculty coming to academia from a business setting possess diverse experiences and educational backgrounds. Many institutional faculty members in public universities complete their bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degrees and immediately accept university positions. These individuals bring extensive

knowledge about their subject matter but they often lack experiential learning and

knowledge that will help them lead learning experiences in college classrooms. They

have rarely been prepared to teach as a formal part of graduate programs. Graduate

education typically focuses exclusively on the knowledge of the chosen discipline and

lacks the teaching and leading strategies for the classroom (Seldin, 1990). Thus, faculty

often arrive at their institutions strong in content and unaware of learning strategies or

tactics of teaching rooted in pedagogical content knowledge. Instructors in the

community college environment often come to their positions from a diverse background

which includes higher education in their chosen field and hands-on experience in an

organization, which may also have provided them with leadership experiences.

An added benefit of business leaders teaching college level courses is that they

often possess the credentials needed to teach the college curriculum along with leadership

skills acquired from working in leadership positions in prior career roles. There has been

a perception, however, that community college instructors lack the necessary skills to be

effective in collegiate classrooms (Seldin, 1990). According to Green (2009), effective

teaching requires active leadership which, in turn, has a positive impact on the students in

the classroom. This necessitates making teaching an institutional priority, removing the

pressure to conduct research rather than to focus on teaching. Many teaching institutions

desire increased national recognition for their research and have modified promotion and

tenure expectations for their faculty. This has negatively impacted devotion to

strengthening a learning environment (Green, 2009). Pounder (2006), agreed that such

pressure existed, stating that in some cases universities pressure faculty to be productive

in research, and this detracts from instructors who practice teacher leadership, demonstrated by sharing best practices, dedication to student learning, and commitment to curriculum enhancement.

In the community college, according to Rifkin (2008), "the professoriate has been distinguished by its mission, size, diversity, and educational background" (p. 1). During the last three decades of the 20th century, there has been a tremendous change in the dynamics of the community college staff structure. In the 1970s, 78% of community college faculty were tenured or tenure-track professors. This number has dropped to 30%. This change has been accompanied by heated debates of both students and faculty of the many advantages and disadvantages to an institution of having fewer tenured faculty.

Community College Faculty Nationally

According to Levin (2005), community colleges employ more than one-third of the nation's full- and part-time faculty to support more than 1,000 public institutions for a total of 270,000 faculty. Over the past two decades, part-time faculty has increased to 64% or 172,800 of community college faculty (Levin, 2005). The amount of time spent in the classroom reflects a greater amount of time teaching for a two-year faculty as opposed to a faculty member at a four-year or doctoral institution (Cataldi, Bradburn, & Fahimi, 2005). According to Pounder (2006) "the research agenda in universities tends to deflect the spotlight away from teacher leadership which could explain the neglect of the concept in a higher education context" (p. 542).

This has been evidenced by three overarching dilemmas that higher education continues to manage: (a) undergraduate instruction is underrated, (b) the social characteristics of the academic community are challenged, and (c) although research is often extraneous, the faculty are disengaged (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996).

Community College Faculty in Florida

The dynamic change in community and state colleges in a more entrepreneurial society has resulted in increased efficiency and a more flexible curriculum. This change has been, in part, responsible for the increased use of part-time and adjunct faculty (Levin, 2005). According to the Florida College System Fact Book for 2012 (Florida Department of Education, 2012), there were 5,939 full time and 19,002 part-time faculty in the 28 community colleges in Florida. Flaherty (2013) addressed the role of part-time faculty, indicating that adjunct or part-time faculty brought practical expertise to the classroom. Although the practical experience of part-time faculty is valuable, the connections to the students, full time faculty, and the institution are often strained due to part-time faculty's limited commitment and ability to participate in the educational activities of the institution.

Community College Faculty at Community College X

Based on NCES 2014 statistics, there were 204 full-time and 579 part-time faculty in Community College X; this represented the employment of 74% part-time faculty over full-time faculty, supporting 190 programs. The overall percentages of part-

time faculty in the 28 Florida community and state colleges ranged between 42% at Brevard Community College to 79% at Indian River State College with an average of all Florida state colleges at 69% (NCES, 2014). Community College X's Associate Dean for Business Programs reported that there were 12 full-time and 40 part-time faculty at Community College X. The percentage of part-time faculty (77%) was above both the college level (74%) and all Florida State Colleges (69%).

Faculty as Teachers

Given the freedoms and responsibilities that all faculty have, Austin (2003) focused on eight essential skills new faculty should possess to be successful in the classroom. These include a knowledge and admiration for the depth of knowledge in their chosen field; the understanding and ability of instructional processes; knowledge and aptitude to use technology in the classroom; the understanding of engagement and service to their students; the ability to correspond with all stakeholders; an expertise with working with diverse individuals; contribute to institutional citizenship and related skills; and finally, a strong belief in the core principle and importance of higher education (Austin, 2003).

In contrast, Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) analyzed 17 different student instructional skills to study differing teacher behaviors and how these behaviors affected student learning outcomes. They identified three general instructional skills that had a direct impact on student effectiveness and satisfaction in the classroom: (a) delivering instruction, (b) facilitating interactions, and (c) evaluating student learning. They found

that "Students' perception of teacher behaviors are multidimensional and have various measures of course-related knowledge acquisition" (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005, p. 115). There was a direct correlation of student success with teacher preparation, clarity and communication of expectations. Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) also referenced pedagogical skill and clarity along with organization and preparation as the two highest characteristics that correlate with student course learning. This was in agreement with Murray's earlier observation (1991) that teachers must be organized for information to be clear and follow a logical progression so as to enhance retention and engagement. Pascarella and Terenzini also noted that students' perceptions of teaching behaviors versus actual teaching behaviors impacted motivation to learn. These behaviors included eye contact, inflection of delivery, and physical attributes.

In their roles, teachers must orchestrate situations and reward structures rather than employ lectures to engage students in rich interactions. The same learning process occurs through new media transmission including communication, comprehension, course design, and engagement. Teachers in traditional classes are responsible for affective, cognitive, and disciplinary behaviors. They occupy roles as managers, evaluators, performers, facilitators, gatekeepers, and boundary-spanners (Coppola, Hiltz, & Rotter, 2002).

Martin, Trigwell, Prosser, & Ramsden (2003), conducted a phenomenographical study of students in the classroom. They discovered indicators of variations in student experience that had an impact on assessment, teaching, and curriculum structure. The research showed an increase in learning as a result of a student-focused approach to

59

teaching. Martin et al. found that lecturer perceptions of inspirational academic

leadership, which provided clear goals and enabled people to embrace change, were

associated with approaches to teaching focused primarily on development/student

focused learning rather than transmission/teacher focused approach. Earlier, Blasé, &

Blasé (1999) emphasized leadership importance with faculty involvement to make sure

conversations were purposeful, appropriate, and non-threatening. They posited that

positive responses resulted in higher self efficacy and self-esteem and ultimately

increased effectiveness in the classroom (Blasé, & Blasé, 1999).

Petrie et al. (2000) argued that a person's experiences develop over time and

contribute to being self-aware, productive, and an effective teacher in the classroom.

Belanger and Longden (2009) outlined that effective teaching involved the connection

between teachers and students, including the learning atmosphere, student motivation, the

class organization, and effective communication. This resulted in the students'

perceptions of their teachers caring for them and their learning. Mastascusa, Snyder, and

Hoyt (2011) shared their thoughts that the art of teaching was not to create a copy of the

material in the students' minds, but rather to assist individuals with the ability to

construct their own perspectives, incorporating personal experiences and collaborative

learning. Challenging students to question normal thoughts, grapple with ideas, solve

problems, and work through critical thinking processes, in Bean's (2001) view, can

deepen exploratory thinking (Bean, 2001).

Fink (2012) described high caliber teachers as having an intense desire to

continue learning both subject matter and concepts of teaching and learning. He believed

that high caliber teachers do not blame others for challenges. Rather, they have a positive

attitude toward finding solutions. They analyze feedback, make improvements for future

lessons, and are able to connect their roles to the larger organizational picture. Effective

teachers use stories and connections to their knowledge and experience to make their

teaching powerful and engaging to grab the attention of learners and excite them about

the material and methods in the course. They outline clear expectations and goals,

incorporate a variety of activities and methods, and utilize many techniques to gain

feedback on student performance. They establish interactions with students in an

atmosphere of caring. Using attentive guidance, they make sure the surroundings are

transparent and open. They create a safe and motivating environment with solid, clear

communication in order to build the foundation for relationships (Fink, 2012).

A learner-centered environment creates work on both the part of the instructor and

the learner whereby the instructor facilitates and guides the students, expecting them to

participate in the experience. This collaboration focuses the instructor on the students,

ensuring connection and understanding and facilitating engagement and application of the

methods to be used and material to be taught (Weimer, 2013).

Faculty as Leaders

Petrie et al. (2000) described key components of knowing oneself, understanding

personal perspective, and developing leadership skills over a lifetime. Self-assessment

enlightens individuals as to their values, how they perceive themselves, and the effects of

leadership skills. To be effective classroom teachers, individuals must understand

themselves as well as understand students and their behavior. Ingram and Fessler (1997) examined the development and leadership of faculty in school systems. They viewed expanded roles where instructors are developed as leaders as advantageous in gaining exposure and new skills that benefit the delivery of classroom curriculum. Quinn (2002) identified the following six dimensions as critical in the practice of leadership application in the classroom: "identifying and articulating a vision, fostering the acceptance of group goals, providing individualized support, intellectual stimulation, providing an appropriate model, and high performance expectations" (p. 448). An additional concept highlighted was active learning where ideas explored through discussion or conversations rather than lecture resulted in a more effective and engaging teacher-led program. This involves engagement and learning by practice and a teacher's high degree of comfort with the material (Quinn, 2002). Variations in the student experience impact assessment, teaching, and curriculum structure. "Instruction and organizational leadership are complex interactions that include communication, control, and coordination of activities" (Harrison, 2011, p. 95).

Using a survey, Kumar and Lightner (2007) examined the need to develop instructors who could foster motivation and engagement in their classrooms. They posited that the use of engaging techniques and interactive activities enabled students to collaborate with peers and encouraged the acquisition of problem solving skills. In the research, there was a concentrated effort to prove that the use of interactive games and simulation in the classroom created a more collaborative individual outside of the institution. Kumar and Lightner found that students responded favorably to the

replacement of traditional lecture with energetic learning activities. There were several

factors measured that influenced the classroom, the top three being (a)

temperament/personality of the instructor; (b) effectiveness, and (c) formal training on

classroom skills. This study supported the perspective that students need and desire a

motivational and engaging environment (Kumar & Lightner, 2007). According to Bogler

et al. (2013), the teacher functions as the leader and the students are the followers in what

can be termed a small social organization. University instructors successfully handle the

classroom and orchestrate student involvement to enhance student learning (Bogler et al.,

2013). Active modes of teaching may also lead to a higher level of student learning

(Fredendall et al., 2001).

     According to Nilson (2003) the instructors' degree of accomplishment in

facilitating student education is considered their teaching effectiveness. "In relationship

to leadership style, it is an instructor's mannerisms, methods, personality and

idiosyncratic qualities that influence the atmosphere in a classroom" (Yacapsin, 2006, p.

38). When an instructor takes an approach where students gain knowledge by

exploration and collaboration, it facilitates the development of relationships and enables

the observation and analysis of all learning aspects in the classroom (Bowman, 2004).

     Remington & Remington (2013) argued that community colleges need

transformational leadership in all sectors of the organization to navigate the changing

student demographics and increase the intellectual superiority of a knowledge-based

society in the world structure (Remington & Remington, 2013). Institutions are counting

on a future in which 20% full-time and 80% part-time faculty will educate students
(Adamowicz, 2007).

Many faculty are professionally qualified as opposed to academically qualified to
teach in higher education. According to Killough (2009), some institutions are
"advocates of the scholar-practitioner model, in which faculty members have real-world
experience in the field they teach" (p. 2). Community colleges bring leaders from
politics, government, and business into the classroom with the expectation that outside
leadership experiences can compensate for deficiencies in academic preparation (Mink,
2007; Nischan, 1997; Solis et al., 2011).

Most articles written regarding faculty leadership since 2000 indicate a concern
about the graying of institutional leaders and the need for development of faculty to
ensure future leadership and administration of the nation's educational institutions
(Cooper & Pagotto, 2003; Piland & Wolf, 2003). Leadership traits in the business
environment enable optimism, hope, confidence and resiliency in the organization and
can be applied in the classroom.

Community College Students

The role of the community college is to serve and ensure development and
progress for the student population. Through open enrollment, community college
students have become more diverse. Substantial variances in socioeconomics, college
preparation, ethnicity, traditional and non-traditional ages, learning styles, and
educational goals have brought with them a host of challenges (Bechtel, 2010). For the

64

institution to be successful, programs must be nimble and outline strategies that are effective in achieving positive outcomes (Choy, 2002; Levin et al., 2010).

Community College Students Nationally

According to the U.S. Department of Education, traditional students are defined as being from 18 to 24 years old, matriculate to postsecondary education directly after high school, are financially dependent on their parents, only work part time and are taking at least 24 credits in an academic year. In comparison, nontraditional students are defined as having one or more of the following characteristics: delayed postsecondary enrollment after high school, enrolled in a higher education institution on a part-time basis, working full time, financially independent, have dependents and are taking less than 12 credit hours in an academic semester (Choy, 2002; Freeman, 2007; Renn & Reason, 2013). Of the 13 million students enrolled in community colleges in the United States in 2014, close to eight million (61%) were enrolled in credit programs and an additional five million (39%) were taking advantage of non-credit opportunities (AACC, 2014a).

Of the 13 million students enrolled in community colleges in the U.S. in 2014, 2,804,305 students (41%) enrolled full-time and 4,061,992 (59%) enrolled part-time. As to gender, 61% were female, and 39% were male. The ethnicity of the student population was 58% White, 15% Hispanic, 13% Black, non-Hispanic, 6% Asian/Pacific Islander, 6% unknown race, 2% non-resident alien, and 1% American India/Alaska Native (AACC, 2014a).

Renn and Reason (2013) addressed the impact that socioeconomic status has on students' prospects for obtaining a college education, i.e., location, type of degree, and the scenario of a two- or four-year institution. AACC (2014b) reported that part-time students constitute a majority of the population with 40% employed full time and 47% employed part time. In comparison, 21% of full time students are employed full time and 59% are employed part time (AACC, 2014b).

Community College Students in Florida

According to the AACC, there were 376,714 students attending 28 public community colleges on 66 different campuses in Florida in 2013-2014, for a total of 181 sites. Of the total students, 141,234 (37%) were enrolled full-time and 235,480 (63%) were enrolled part-time. Female students (62%) substantially outnumbered male students (38%). Ethnicity of the student population was 55% White, 20% Hispanic, 17% Black, non-Hispanic, 3% Asian/Pacific Islander, 3% unknown race, 3% non-resident alien, and lastly 0% American India/Alaska Native (AACC, 2014a).

Community College X

The institution that served as the site of the research was a state college that began as a junior college in 1965. It has grown to a six-site campus offering over 190 degrees and programs to 32,000 students enrolled in the 2012-13 year (School website, 2014). Of the students enrolled, 13,120 (41%) were males and 18,880 (59%) were women. Ethnicity reflected in the student population was 51% White, 22% Hispanic, 18% Black,

non-Hispanic, 1% Asian/Pacific Islander, 2% unknown race, 3% non-resident alien, 1% American India/Alaska Native, and lastly 2% two or more races (NCES, 2014).

<center>Corporation-University Partnerships</center>

According to Meister (1994), large businesses have been in transition over the last few decades moving from hierarchical, autocratic environments to an inspirational allied network of partnerships. The days have passed when corporations conducted business in a stable, slow moving hierarchy. The fast-moving, competitive environment of the 21st century demands that businesses be more nimble, flat, and flexible, with decentralized thinking and decision making capability (Meister, 1994). According to Meister and Willyerd (2010) it will be important for companies to dramatically change the environment in which employees work, discover and converse, including opportunities to collaborate, personalize their work station and be hyper-connected to peers partners and clients. It is critical that organizations focus on the productivity of knowledge workers and be proactive rather than reactive in developing human capital to support the success of their business models. According to Thompson (2000), one of the most important assets within a company is its employees and their development (Thompson, 2000). Also, organizations will need strategic alliances with other businesses to offer low-cost, mass-customized development programs (New 21st Century Corporate University, 1999).

Business has been vocal in calling for universities to be flexible in delivering curriculum to meet the needs of employers and employees. Companies look to community colleges, colleges, and universities to provide curriculum along with

<center>67</center>

development of 'in-house' programs for employees. Contracts are developed for institutional relationships providing workshops, seminars, or courses specifically designed and delivered (Lynton, 1984). According to Eurich (1990), corporations in the 1980s were striving to build credibility for human resource training and development departments by attracting outstanding managers. Smaller companies, those with 100 or fewer employees, who lacked the ability to offer company-sponsored education, have occasionally sought partnerships with local community colleges or institutions for collaborative arrangements for employee development programs (Eurich, 1985). According to Eurich (1990), two-year colleges had increased enrollment to five million in 1986 and were the largest suppliers of basic and developmental courses for the advancement of training needs for corporate employees. This has been accomplished through the flexible nature of two-year colleges working closely with communities, local businesses, and industries (Eurich, 1990; Milliron & De Los Santos, 2004). In this early period (1990), a total of 14,000 executives reportedly attended courses ranging from one-week specialized courses to 11-week advanced management programs offered through approximately 60 higher education institutions (Eurich, 1990).

Meister (2001) examined corporate partnerships with universities for development of employees. Corporate University Xchange conducted research, finding that "92 percent of corporations outsource the delivery of education and training programs" (Meister, 2001, p. 1). In 2003, companies spent $10 billion on tuition reimbursement for higher education development (Meister, 2003). Meister believed that this was justified,

as the benefits outweighed the costs when employees demonstrated their learning on the job and were prepared to advance into higher or more productive positions.

According to Boggs (2012), "students in community colleges today must be prepared to compete in a global economy and society" (p. 102). To this end, community colleges have developed industry relationships to offer strong general education classes and practical work experience curriculum generating entrance for their students into the labor force. Community colleges have prepared themselves to meet multiple purposes: to educate the workforce by preparing students for transfer to four-year institutions, support non-traditional students that other institutions fail to education or ignore, and provide training for an assortment of community workforce needs (Freeman, 2007).

The National Association of Colleges and Employers [NACE] (2013) identified 10 top skills and qualities that employers expect from job candidates recently graduating from an institution of higher education. Each of these skills is considered important for a student to be successful in the business environment. The most important skill (4.55 on a 5.0 scale) was being able to work with peers and partners in a team atmosphere. The second most important skill was the ability to gather information to make decisions and solve problems to enable work to be completed. Third most important was planning, organizing and prioritizing work and ensuring the right work was being completed. The fourth most important skill was the ability to communicate verbally with all stakeholders of the business. The remaining six skills included knowing resources; how to process the information, and analyzing these data to be strategic in incorporating this information into the operation. Also important were the following: having technical knowledge of the

role to accomplish the job, having the ability to incorporate technology for efficiency and effectiveness, and having the ability to handle written communication. The last skill NACE cited as important to job seekers was the ability to influence all those involved in the business. Corporations have found that education and development are lifetime commitments for both the employee and the organization and result in positive retention and role satisfaction. Whatever the program, it must have well defined and credible strategic corporate aligned goals and objectives (Bernhard & Ingols, 1988).

On January 28, 2014, President Barack Obama, in his State of the Union address, addressed the importance of education, announcing a program to boost access to college for low-income students. As part of the initiative, 150 colleges, businesses, and other organizations were invited to a College Opportunity Summit, and Vice President Biden was asked to orchestrate the team to look into reform of America's training programs. This was proposed to include more on-the-job training and apprenticeships along with companies working with community colleges on specific instruction requirements. This committee has been tasked with continuing to explore ways to improve student admission, retention, and persistence to reach their goals and improve achievement for higher education students. As part of the initiative, businesses will address the topic of increasing apprenticeship training plans which provide a robust pathway to middle income jobs (AACC, 2014d).

<u>Summary</u>

The dynamics of the nation's workforce have changed tremendously over the past three centuries as the country advanced from an agricultural to industrial, and later to a primarily service based economy. Each of these advances in society has impacted the business environment and higher education in preparing students for careers.

Leadership has also evolved as entrepreneurs sought to positively impact one of their most important assets, human resources. With the need for improved productivity, development of human capital has been crucial. Unity of command no longer rules in the business environment. According to Gardner (1995), leaders are "individuals who significantly influence the thoughts, behaviors and/or feelings of others" (p. 6). Leaders must exercise their transformational leadership skills to impact business relationships and performance of their followers.

The study of leadership has resulted in many theories. Bass and Avolio's (1995) full range leadership theory was selected to be used in the present study. This model originated with Weber's (1947) emphasis on the trait, charisma, and was later expanded by Burns (1978) in his research on transactional and transforming leadership. Bass (1985) refined the definition of full range leadership theory to include six factors or traits to describe the dynamics of a leader. Full range leadership has a broad array of behaviors ranging from laissez-faire or non-leadership to transformational or highly effective leadership. The range also includes transactional leadership demonstrated by outlining expectations and rewards. The benefits of effective leaders and their positive impact on productivity in an organization have long been documented in the business field. In this

study, transformational leadership exhibited by community college instructors was investigated in order to examine the benefits, i.e., student effort, instructor effectiveness, and overall satisfaction with the instructor, all of which have been recognized as contributing to successful student achievement.

Although the full range leadership theory was developed and primarily used in business, the value of application in other environments has been recognized. The literature reviewed in this chapter highlighted a number of business applications and 12 higher education studies utilizing the instrument that was used in the present study, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). The feedback on these studies indicated the increased transformational leadership traits of the instructors increased learning outcomes in the classroom. The MLQ 5X Short, developed by Avolio and Bass (1995), measures the levels of effective and ineffective leadership, identifying transformational, transactional and laissez-faire approaches. It measures nine behaviors including five transformational, two transactional, and two passive-avoidant leadership behaviors. The items are based on a five-point scale. Item responses generate outcome data as to (a) student extra effort, (b) effectiveness of the instructor and (c) satisfaction (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

The changes in the United States over the past three centuries have impacted all aspects of society. Major changes have occurred in higher education to keep up with and advance the level of knowledge necessary for individuals to be successful. Until the 1900s, large institutions that were selective in enrollment were the only resources available to gaining postsecondary education. Joliet Junior College, the first junior

college, started as a 5th- and 6th- year organization to assist students lacking readiness to advance into normal higher education institutions. This was the beginning of the community college system that has evolved over the past 100 years. The community college system of education has developed into major educational pathway for many students exiting high school and a bridge for students seeking to eventually enter four-year institutions (Bechtel, 2010). Community colleges have become critical providers of quality, affordable education and workforce development and likely will continue to be a fundamental part of the educational structure (Milliron & De Los Santos, 2004).

The Truman Commission Report gave credibility to the community college. After WWII, the servicemen's readjustment act or GI Bill enabled many Americans the ability to matriculate into higher education which made a huge impact on access and availability of higher education. During this time, the number of community colleges doubled.

Faculty are critical in the classroom to establish an effective environment conducive to learning. They can be helpful to students in constructing their own perspectives, incorporating personal experiences in their teaching, using engaging techniques, facilitating interactive activities, and being collaborative in the classroom (Mastascusa et al., 2011). Those individuals who possess both subject matter expertise and practical experience are able to bring the curriculum to life for students, assisting them with critical thinking, problem solving, and high levels of engagement. Community colleges employ more than one-third of the nation's full and part-time faculty (Levin, 2005). Some of these individuals, particularly those who are part-time employees,

73

balance their classroom activity with primary employment in the business world. They bring rich experience into their classrooms which function as a small social organization with teachers as leaders and students as followers (Bogler et al., 2013).

According to the American Association of Community Colleges (2014a), more than 13 million students were enrolled in credit and non-credit programs in 2013-2014. Through open enrollment, the community college student population has become increasingly diverse in terms of socioeconomic status, preparation for college, ethnicity, traditional and non-traditional ages, learning styles, and educational goals (Bechtel, 2010).

In reviewing the literature, no scholarly research or writing was found that was focused on the research topic selected for the present study: the exploration of teacher leadership derived from prior business experience and its impact on community college students. This study was conducted to explore differences, if any, in the full range leadership theory profiles of faculty with leadership. This research has the potential to positively impact the institution and the overall student experience.

Chapter 3 contains the methods and procedures that were used to conduct the study. The population and sample for instructors and students are identified, and the design of the study is explained. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), the instrument that was used in the study, is discussed along with its reliability and validity. The data collection and statistical analysis plans are also delineated. Finally, information regarding authorization to conduct the study, permissions, and originality score information are presented.

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter contains information about the methods and procedures used to conduct the study. First, the design of the study and the specific research questions are detailed. The population and resulting sample are explained, followed by a description of the instrumentation and its reliability and validity. Additionally, the plans for data collection and statistical analysis are outlined. Final details, including the determination of an originality score for the study, are also discussed.

Although there are many definitions of leadership, according to Chemers (1997) leadership is the "process of social influence in which one person can enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of common tasks" (p. 1). To be a strong leader requires knowledge and skills when working with individuals. Faculty skilled and experienced in leadership techniques often have a higher level of engagement, resulting in increased teaching effectiveness and student satisfaction. A number of studies have tested the variables of transformational leadership in educational settings that have established a connection to positive student outcomes (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2009; Pounder, 2008a, b, c; Walumbwa et al., 2004). Instructors who display transformational leadership qualities may also positively influence student behaviors, perceptions, and learning results by building trust and providing vision, support, and encouragement. This behavior results in overall higher levels of student engagement, extra effort, and a higher level of perception of instructors' effectiveness; these effects all lead to overall

75

satisfaction with the class and instructor (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2009; Harrison, 2011; Walumbwa et al., 2004).

This study used the Avolio and Bass's (1995) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Appendix C) to measure the self-perceived leadership style of instructors and students' perceptions of the leadership styles of their instructors in the school of business in a southeastern community college. The researcher sought to determine the existence of a relationship between the level of leadership style among community college faculty and the students' (a) willingness to exert extra effort, (b) perceptions of the instructor's effectiveness, and (c) level of satisfaction with their instructors.

This quantitative correlational study utilized the Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient (Pearson correlation), the Mann Whitney U Test, and the Kruskal-Wallis Test. Pearson correlation was used to identify the relationship between aggregate data describing the transformational leadership styles and each of the outcome variables: perceived student extra effort, perceived teaching effectiveness, and perceived student satisfaction. The Mann Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis are methods used to showcase any differences between leadership styles and the variables describing instructors' leadership experience.

Design of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the association between faculty leadership skills in the classroom and students' (a) willingness to provide extra effort in the classroom, (b) perception of instructor effectiveness, and (c) satisfaction with

instruction. The leadership of community college instructors who have previous leadership experience in the business environment was measured using Avolio and Bass's (1995) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), which measures nine factors of leadership skills through a quantitative survey.

Pearson correlation, the Mann Whitney U Test, and the Kruskal-Wallis Test were used as the tools to conduct this study. Pearson correlation is a bivariate measure of association to determine the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two quantitative variables. Used with descriptive or inferential statistics, variables are correlated when there is some predictability about the relationship. The assumption made is that there is a normal distribution of variables (Lomax, 2007). Mann Whitney U Test is a non-parametric test for comparing the distribution of a continuous variable between two independent groups, used when data are ordinal or not normally distributed (Pallant, 2005). This procedure is used when the dependent variable is of ordinal scale, there is a small sample, the data are not normally distributed, the two groups are independent, and the goal is looking for mean differences. The results of this procedure indicate if there is a statistically significant mean difference in the dependent variable between the two groups (Lomax, 2007). The Kruskal-Wallis test is a non-parametric test used to compare multiple independent samples that may have different sizes. The scores are changed to ranks and the mean rank is compared for each group (Lomax, 2007).

<center>Research Questions</center>

Research questions that were used to guide the study are as follows:

1. What relationship, if any, exists between community college faculty transformational leadership style and the students' (a) willingness to exert extra effort, (b) perception of leader effectiveness, and (c) satisfaction with their instructor?

2. What differences, if any, exist in the full range leadership theory profiles of faculty?

<center>Population</center>

Community Colleges were identified as an appropriate student population source because classroom instructors had a variety of backgrounds and leadership experience. Community College X was chosen because the Associate Dean was aware of and willing to support the research study which included business faculty members with and without previous formal leadership experience. Institutional approval was gained from the Business Department Dean and the Associate Vice President for Institutional Research.

Based on NCES 2014 statistics, there were 204 full-time and 579 part-time faculty supporting 190 programs in Community College X. The instructor population for the Business Department of Community College X was comprised of 12 full-time and 40 part-time instructors, totaling 52 faculty members.

In total, this study was conducted using two populations derived from a convenience sampling process. The total instructor population for the summer semesters

<center>78</center>

consisted of 16 full- and part-time instructors who taught in the business department of Community College X. Fourteen instructors teaching a total of 25 sections of classes agreed to participate in the study. The summer A and summer full term required a reduced number of faculty along with many classes migrating to an online format, which reduced the number of face-to-face and hybrid classes scheduled. The demographic information gathered was used to identify instructors' previous leadership experience.

The student population consisted of those students who attended the 25 classes of the identified instructors in the business programs department of Community College X. These students were from varied backgrounds and were completing various degree programs, (i.e., Business and Information, Business Administration, Accounting, Office Systems, Entrepreneurship and Small Business, and Legal Studies). Demographics gathered during data collection help demonstrate the diversity of students. The 25 classes had an average population of 16 students per class with a total number of 409 students enrolled in face-to-face and hybrid classes with the 14 identified instructors.

Preliminary support to conduct this study was given by the research department director at Community College X (Appendix D). This included a letter stating this support along with the direction that the protocol and methodology must be reviewed by the school's Institutional Review Board (IRB), Executive Team, and Academic Leadership Team. IRB department authorization was obtained from the participating institution, Community College X (Appendix E), along with that of the University of Central Florida (Appendix F).

This study was designed to compare the applicability of the theories of Avolio and Bass (1995) in the community college setting. The majority of studies previously conducted have measured transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership constructs with a focus on business leadership. At least 12 identified studies have been conducted to measure perceived leadership style in the university classroom environment. Researchers in these studies (Bass et al., 1987; Harvey et al., 2003; Hood et al., 2009; Pounder, 2008a, b, c; Walumbwa et al., 2004) suggested that instructors who exhibit traits of transformational leadership are associated with positive student outcomes in their classes. No similar studies, however, were found in the review of literature or related research to measure or compare the effects of leadership experience in a community college classroom environment.

The extent to which leadership skills have a variety and range of effectiveness in the business world and have a positive effect in the classroom can be evaluated and demonstrated using Avolio and Bass's (1995) MLQ instrument which measures transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership. Also known as the MLQ 5X Short, this instrument measures a broad range of leadership skills ranging from passive to transformational. According to Avolio and Bass (2004), the MLQ Short measures individual leadership styles from two perspectives: (a) active versus passive engagement of the leaders, and (b) effective versus ineffective leadership.

Avolio et al. (1995) developed the MLQ to measure transformational and transactional leadership which, at the time, consisted of six factors. It was later expanded

to include nine measureable factors including five transformational factors: (a) idealized

influence (attribute), (b) idealized influence (behavior), (c) inspirational motivation, (d)

intellectual stimulation, and (e) individual consideration. It also included two

transactional factors: contingent reward and management-by-exception (active); and two

passive-avoidant leadership behaviors: management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-

faire. The three leadership outcomes that result from the three leadership behaviors are

(a) extra effort, (b) effectiveness and (c) satisfaction with the leadership (Avolio & Bass,

2004). Each of the questions relate to factors as outlined in Table 3.

Table 3

Relationship Between Survey Protocol and Theoretical Framework

Theoretical Framework Category	Interview Protocol Questions
Idealized influence attributed	10, 18, 21, 25
Idealized influence behavior	6, 14, 23, 34
Inspirational motivation	9, 13, 26, 36
Intellectual stimulation	2, 8, 30, 32
Individualized consideration	15, 19, 29, 31
Contingent reward	1, 11,16, 35
Management-by exception--active	4, 22, 24, 27
Management-by-exception--passive	3, 12, 17, 20
Laissez-faire	5, 7, 28, 33
Extra effort	39, 42, 44
Effectiveness	37, 40, 43, 45
Satisfaction	38, 41

The MLQ 5X Short consists of 45 behavioral statements using a five-point Likert-

type style rating system ranging from 0 to 4 where 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 =

sometimes, 3 = fairly often, and 4 = frequently, if not always. The leader's form was

completed by the instructor as a self-assessment, and students used the rater form to

assess the leadership characteristics of their instructors. In the MLQ, leaders and

followers are asked to indicate how frequently each statement describes their own

leadership style or that of their leader. Scores are generated for nine separate scales, five

of which represent aspects of transformational leadership, two of which represent aspects

of transactional leadership, and two of which align with passive leadership (Block, 2003).

The last nine questions of the survey address the variables through four questions

measuring effectiveness, three questions measuring extra effort, and two questions

measuring follower satisfaction (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

In addition to the MLQ, additional questions regarding participant demographics

were created. The questionnaire was administered by the researcher, using a paper

survey. Demographic questions that were added to the instructor survey pertained to age,

gender, number of years in higher education, length of time teaching in Community

College X, the understanding of leadership position, and previous experience.

The student survey consisted of the 45 question MLQ along with four

demographic questions. These include student age, year in the program, degree that was

being sought and grade point average. To prevent a stereotype threat, the demographic

questions were placed at the end of the survey. Stereotype threat is the phenomenon

where an individual's performance is influenced by negative self-perception. It is

thought to originate from past personal situations that contribute to relevant social

identity (Aramovich, 2014; Schmader, Johns, & Forbes, 2008). To prevent this from

occurring in an analysis environment, the demographic questions that may cause the stereotype threat phenomenon are placed at the end to mitigate such an occurrence.

Reliability and Validity

The survey instrument, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Form 5X Short (Avolio & Bass, 1995) evaluates behaviors as transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire. The MLQ has been proven through a broad range of organizational studies to have excellent validity and reliability (Bass, 1997). Antonakis et al. (2003) conducted a study analyzing the factor construction of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership with the MLQ 5X Short. They indicated that "to their knowledge, there has been little or no controversy surrounding the predictive nature of the theory" (pp. 263-264). The Antonakis et al. (2003) study focused on 14 studies that engendered differing claims concerning the factor composition of the MLQ. Their report tracked the changes and findings of the questionnaire over the past 30 years, evaluating business leadership using a homogenous business sample of 3,368 individuals. Their results indicated that the tool supported the premise of the nine-factor leadership model by Avolio and Bass (1995).

The reliability of the MLQ 5X Short continues to be validated with the normative data base sustained by Mind Garden (n.d.). The studies investigated contain responses from 27,285 participants with reputable reliabilities for each factor scale in the range of .69 to .83 and the outcome scale in the range of .79 to .83. The outcome of this thorough analysis has led to the conclusion that the MLQ 5X Short continues to provide reliable

results (Avolio & Bass, 2004). According to Kirkbride (2006) the full-range leadership model has extensive validated research and is used in business worldwide.

<div align="center">Data Collection Procedures</div>

Data collection followed the first two steps of the implementation procedures suggested by Dillman, Smyth, and Christian (2009). The Dillman et al. method includes a five-step contact process: a pre-notice letter, questionnaire mailing, thank-you postcard, replacement questionnaire, and a different mode of delivery. Because the researcher collected the data in classrooms from students and instructors, the process only required the pre-notice and questionnaire delivery steps. Names and email addresses of instructors were secured in order to distribute, an introductory letter. The communication to both the instructors and students provided (a) assurance to the participants that their information would be kept confidential, (b) the purpose behind the research, and (c) awareness that the aggregate findings from the study might be disseminated to the specialized population. In addition, the researcher communicated instructions for completion of the MLQ.

Business Department faculty constituted a convenience sample. The time period for survey data collection was identified as the summer A and summer full term of 2014 which, once enrollment was complete, included a total of 16 instructors teaching during these terms. Because the population was consider small, the decision was made to survey all working instructors and their students during the two summer terms. Of the 16 instructors, 14 agreed to participate in the study. The 14 instructors taught a total of 409

students enrolled in 25 sections during the summer term (10 in summer A, and 15 in summer full term). Demographic information gathered identified that all instructors surveyed had previous leadership experience in the private sector or the military.

The student population consisted of those students who were enrolled in the classes of the identified instructors in the Business Department of Community College X. According to the demographic data collected, students were completing various degree programs, including: Business and Information, Business Administration, Accounting, Office Systems, Entrepreneurship and Small Business, and Legal Studies. Students in completely online classes were not surveyed, because students were not exposed to the instructor in a face-to-face environment.

The Associate Dean for the Business Department of Community College X emailed a communication to alert students to the impending survey of all face-to-face and hybrid students for summer A and summer full term semesters. Each student received an email of introduction (Appendix G) in early summer which included information about the researcher, the study that was being conducted, and the timing of the study. Students were informed that the researcher would administer the survey during their face-to-face class time, and that completing the survey would take between 15 and 20 minutes.

Instructors were communicated with in multiple ways. First, the Associate Dean sent an email (Appendix H) explaining the survey, introducing the researcher, and outlining the summer timeline. Second, once the summer semester commenced, all instructors were invited to a meeting with the Associate Dean during which the research and the survey were discussed. The process, procedures, and instructors' questions were

addressed during this time period. A third communication (email) was sent to each

instructor from the researcher two weeks prior to the actual survey being conducted,

providing the specific date and time the researcher would attend class to administer the

survey (Appendix I). Contact information was included for the instructor to contact the

researcher should any schedule adjustment be required. Instructors completed the survey

at the same time their students did, during the 15-20 minute period of face-to-face class

time.

Two weeks were identified for data collection. Students in summer A classes

were scheduled for survey during the fifth week of classes, June 9-12, 2014. One class

was delayed until the sixth week due to curriculum demands in week 5. Students

enrolled in summer full term were scheduled for survey during the eighth week of class,

July 7-10, 2014. Again, one class required the researcher to delay data collection until

week 9.

All instructors and students were asked to sign an informed consent prior to

completing the surveys (Appendix J and K). Once the surveys were completed and

collected, the students and instructors were offered a copy of the informed consent form

for their personal reference. Two students and one instructor requested a copy of the

form.

<u>Statistical Analysis</u>

The supplied data were entered into SPSS. The researcher utilized descriptive

statistics in analyzing the demographic information gleaned from the student and

instructor samples. The leadership variables that were studied were the respective scales for transformational (five-trait construct), transactional (two-trait construct), and laissez-faire (two-trait construct) leadership. Although descriptive statistics were provided for each of the sub-constructs of leadership style, each leadership style (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) was represented by a composite variable. The outcome variables were student extra effort, teaching effectiveness, and student satisfaction.

To analyze the data for Research Question 1, the researcher employed a Pearson correlation to identify the relationship between the aggregated transformational leadership style variable and each of the outcome variables: perceived student extra effort, perceived teaching effectiveness, and perceived student satisfaction. Because correlation does not involve the identification of a dependent relationship, all variables were treated as independent variables for this analysis. To take the analysis to the next level, a linear regression analysis was used to investigate the association between a single dependent variable and independent variables (Lomax, 2007). Its application in statistical analysis covers prediction and explanation: Prediction suggests the extent to which the regression variation can predict the dependent variable, and explanation tests the regression coefficients (their magnitude, sign, and statistical significance) for independent variables and attempts to devise a cause for the effects of the independent variable (Lomax, 2007).

The analysis of data to respond to Research Question 2 employed the Mann Whitney U Test and Kruskal-Wallis Test to showcase the difference between the levels of transformational leadership style and the levels of leadership experience. Three

dependent variables (the aggregated transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership style variables) were considered individually and simultaneously as they were analyzed.

<u>Authorization to Conduct Study/Institutional Review Board (IRB)</u>

Approval to conduct the study was obtained through the college's IRB (Appendix E). Once the proposal was approved by the researcher's dissertation committee, permission was obtained from the University of Central Florida's IRB to conduct the study (Appendix F).

<u>Originality Score</u>

The requirement for originality of the dissertation by the Higher Education and Policy Studies Program in the College of Education and Human Services at the University of Central Florida is that every dissertation and thesis must be submitted through Turnitin.com. Submitted documents must have an originality score between 0-10%. This study was reviewed with a score between 8-10%.

<u>Summary</u>

To be a strong leader in the classroom requires the instructor to be knowledgeable regarding the subject matter and have the ability to influence student engagement. This is accomplished, in part, by instructors creating an environment where students are challenged to engage in activities, e. g., collaboration, critical thinking and creative problems solving. The purpose of this study was to analyze the leadership skills of

community college instructors and their impact on student extra effort, student perception of instructor effectiveness, and student satisfaction with the instructor.

The research questions identified were used to measure the transformational leadership that related to student extra effort, student perceived effectiveness of the instructor in the classroom, and student satisfaction with the instructor. The instrument, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) developed by Avolio and Bass (1995), was administered to instructors and students in the business department of a southeastern community college. Previous studies conducted utilizing this instrument in the higher education arena have successfully measured these dynamics. Transformational leadership data for instructors with previous leadership experience were evaluated regarding the levels of experience. The results of the researcher's statistical analyses are presented in Chapter 4, and the summary, findings, and recommendations for future research are described in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 4
DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter consists of a summary of the data analyses conducted in the study. It addresses the data collection process including the response rates for both students and instructors, the analyses of data for each of the two research questions that were used to guide the study, and findings of the study.

The data analyses in this chapter have been separated into two sections. Section 1, Descriptive Data, contains frequencies and percentages of faculty and student demographic information and results. Section 2, Inferential Data, presents results related to the statistical analyses using the Pearson Product-Moment correlation, Mann Whitney U Test, and Kruskal-Wallis Test to respond to the two research questions.

Response Rates

Over the two weeks of data collection, community college instructors (N = 14) were surveyed using the leader's version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5X Short. This survey included the 45-item survey along with eight demographic questions. To ensure confidentiality and for effective organization, the instructor and student surveys were identified by a class number.

The enrollment during the summer A and summer full term was originally estimated to be approximately 1,200 students, including face-to-face and hybrid classes.

Because online classes did not include a face-to-face experience with the instructor, the decision was made to exclude them.

Once enrollment was finalized (during the first week of summer A and summer full term), the number of students enrolled in face-to-face and hybrid classes was significantly lower than expected. Summer A population included 12 classes with 231students enrolled for face-to-face and hybrid class instruction. Summer full term included 19 classes with 282 students enrolled in face-to-face and hybrid classes for a total of 513 students taught by 16 instructors.

Two instructors did not agree to participate in the study, thus reducing the participating instructors to 14. These 14 instructors taught a total of 25 classes (187 students enrolled in 10 classes during summer A and 222 students enrolled in 15 classes during summer full term, a total of 409 potential student participants). Of the 409, 145 surveys were completed by summer A students, and 168 surveys were completed by summer full term students for a total of 313 surveys available for analysis, a final response rate of 77%.

The number of potential class sections, students enrolled, and instructors available for research participation for summer A and summer full term, 2014 and the actual number of participants in the research are displayed in Table 4.

Table 4

Potential and Actual Participation in Research: Community College X Classes, Students, and Instructors

Face-to-Face/Hybrid	Potential Participants			Actual Participants		
	Summer A	Summer Full Term	Total Potential	Summer A	Summer Full Term	Total Actual
Classes	10	15	25	10	15	25
Students	187	222	409	145	168	313
Instructors		14	14		14	14

All of the 14 instructors who agreed to participate in the research during summer A and/or full summer terms completed surveys. When instructors taught multiple classes, they completed one survey to be used multiple times. This resulted in a total of 25 surveys representing data for the 25 classes taught in summer A and summer full term being completed for the 14 instructors.

It should be noted that there were a number of students enrolled in multiple classes and they could have completed multiple surveys. There were instances where students attended multiple classes conducted by the same instructor as well as other instances where the student attended multiple classes in the business department with different instructors. At each administration, the researcher explained to students that their responses to survey questions should pertain to the specific class, curriculum, and instructor in which the survey was being administered.

The MLQ survey was distributed as a self-administered questionnaire during each class in the Business Department of Community College X. The standard instructions for

the MLQ Form 5X Short instructs evaluators to "leave the answer blank if they think an item is irrelevant or if they are unsure or do not know the answer" (Avolio & Bass, 1995, pp. 2 & 4). Thus, not all survey questions were answered by every respondent. Possible reasons for omitted answers might be related to the language used in the MLQ which is directed toward a leadership/follower engagement. Some questions may not have been perceived by students to relate to the instructor/student relationship. The researcher did not want students to randomly answer questions that did not relate as this would have lessened confidence in the data collected.

<u>Descriptive Data</u>

Faculty Demographics

Demographics collected for the instructors in the Business Department of Community College X included age, gender, number of years teaching in both higher education and at Community College X. These demographics are reported in Table 5.

In regard to gender, a majority of the instructors, 10 of 14 (71.4%), identified their gender as male; and four of 14 the instructors (28.6%) reported their gender as female. Seven (50%) of the instructors were 56 years of age or older. Four (28.6%) were 41-55 years of age, and three instructors (21.4%) were age 26-40.

Table 5

Instructor Demographics (N = 14)

Characteristic	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Female	4	28.6
Male	10	71.4
Age		
26-40	3	21.4
41-55	4	28.6
56 or older	7	50.0
Years in Higher Education		
1-3 years	5	35.7
4-6 years	2	14.3
7-10 years	3	21.4
11-15 years	2	14.3
16 or more years	2	14.3
Years teaching in community college		
1-3 years	6	42.9
4-6 years	3	21.4
7-10 years	2	14.3
11-15 years	2	14.3
16 or more years	1	7.1
Prior leadership: Organization size		
Under 50 employees	5	35.7
51 to 500 employees	4	28.6
501 to 5,000 employees	3	21.4
Over 5,000 employees	2	14.3
Employees Reporting to Leader		
1-20 employees	10	71.4
21-above	4	28.6

Instructors exhibited varied years of experience teaching in higher education. Of

the 14 instructors surveyed, five (35.7%) had 1-3 years of experience, two (14.3%) had 4-

6 years of experience, three (21.4%) had 7-10 years, two (14.3%) had 11-15 years of experience, and two (14.3%) had 16 years or more experience in teaching in higher education.

Instructors were also asked how many years they had been teaching at Community College X. The largest percentage of instructors had the least years of teaching at Community College X. Six instructors (42.9%) had 1-3 years, three (21.4%) had 4-6 years, two (14.3%) had 1-10 years, two (14.3%) had 11-15 years and one (7.1%) had taught for 16 or more years at Community College X.

After being given the definition of the position of leadership as "having individuals reporting to you in a direct reporting relationship," instructors were asked if they had experience in a position of leadership in the private sector or military. If the response was "no," they were directed to proceed to the next page to complete the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. If the response was "yes," they were directed to complete survey item 6, which requested information about (a) the size of the organization in which they were leaders and (b) the number of individuals who reported to them.

As shown in Table 5, all respondents indicated that they had experience in a position of leadership in the private sector or military. The size of their organizations ranged from under 50 employees to over 5,000. Five instructors (35.7%) were part of an organization that employed under 50 employees, four instructors (28.6%) indicated their organizations employed between 51 and 500 employees, three (21.4%) employed

between 501 and 5,000 employees. Only two instructors (14.3%) were employed in an organization with more than 5,000 employees.

Also shown in Table 5, is the number of individuals who reported to instructors as leaders in an organization. Ten instructors (71.4%) indicated that the number of individuals reporting to them was between 1and 20. Only four instructors (28.6%) responded that more than 21 individuals were in a reporting structure to them in their prior organizations.

Student Demographics

The student population for this study consisted of students who attended the classes of the 14 participating instructors in the Business Department of Community College X. A total of 409 students were enrolled in 25 face-to-face and hybrid classes for an average class size of 16. Table 6 presents the demographic characteristics for the 313 students (77%) who completed surveys using frequencies and percentages. Demographic characteristics reported include the following: age, year of enrollment in the program, major field of study, and grade point average.

As shown in Table 6, the largest number of students, 136 (44%), were under 25 years old. A total of 115 students (37.2%) were between 26 and 40 years of age; 52 students (16.8%) were between 41 and 55 years old, and six students (1.9%) were age 56 or older.

Table 6

Community College Students: Demographic Characteristics (N = 313)

Characteristic	Frequency	Percentage
Age (n = 309)		
25 or under	136	44.0
26-40	115	37.2
41-55	52	16.8
56 or older	6	1.9
Year in Program (n = 304)		
1	86	28.3
2	116	38.2
3	64	21.1
4	34	11.2
5	1	.3
6+	3	1.0
Major field of study (n = 306)		
Accounting	16	5.2
Business Administration	27	8.8
Business and Information	128	41.8
Construction	7	2.3
Entrepreneurship and Small Business	4	1.3
Finance	11	3.6
Health	8	2.6
Legal Studies	75	24.6
Office Systems	1	.3
Other	29	9.5
Grade Point Average (n = 277)		
2.0 - 2.49	14	5.1
2.5 - 3.00	94	33.9
3.1 - 3.49	74	26.7
3.50 - 4.00	95	34.3

Students were queried as to their year of enrollment in the program. A total of

116 students (38.2%) reported having been in the program for two years; 86 students

(28.3%) indicated one year; 64 students (21.1%) indicated three years; 34 students (11.2%) indicated four years; one student (.3%) indicated five years, and three students (1.0%) indicated six years. A total of 36 students did not respond to the question.

Students reported majoring in a variety of degree programs in the Business Department, e.g., Business and Information, Business Administration, Accounting, Office Systems, Entrepreneurship and Small Business, and Legal Studies, and other programs. As shown in Table 6, 128 (41.8%) students were in pursuit of a Business and Information degree. The second largest number of students, (75, 24.6%) were pursuing a degree within the legal studies area. The third largest group was Other (29, 9.5%), containing a variety of degrees not listed, followed by Business Administration (27, 8.8%) of students. The following areas of study were reported as majors for smaller groups of students responding to the survey: Accounting, 16 (5.2%), Finance, 11 (3.6%), Health, eight (2.6%), Construction, seven (2.3%), Entrepreneurship and Small Business, four (1.3%), and Office Systems one, (.3%).

Table 6 also contains the self-reported grade point averages of students. Grade point averages of reporting students were grouped into categories. Of the students who shared their grade point averages, 95 (34.3%) stated they had a grade point average between 3.5 and 4.0. 94 (33.9%) indicated a 2.5 to 3.0 grade point average, and 74 (26.7%) indicated a 3.1 to 3.49 grade point average. Only 14 students (5.1%) reported having a grade point average of 2.0-2.49. A total of 33 students elected not to share their grade point averages.

Scoring the Data

Avolio and Bass (2004) expanded the MLQ to include nine measureable factors including five transformational factors, two transactional factors, and two passive-avoidant leadership behaviors. Three leadership outcomes result from these leadership behaviors: (a) extra effort, (b) effectiveness and (c) satisfaction with the leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

The MLQ 5X Short consists of 45 behavioral statements using a five-point Likert-type style rating system ranging from 0 to 4 where 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, and 4 = frequently, if not always. Scores are generated for nine separate scales, five of which represent aspects of transformational leadership, two of which represent aspects of transactional leadership, and two of which align with passive leadership (Block, 2003).

Once the data were entered into SPSS, composite variables were developed for each factor. As shown in Table 7, each of the nine factors was linked to four of the survey questions. For example, Idealized influence attributed was associated with questions 10, 18, 21, and 25. The scores identified for each of these questions were summed and divided by 4 (the number of questions) to determine an overall score for the single factor. The next step was to sum the five factors for transformational leadership, i.e.; idealized influence attributed, idealized influence behavior, inspirational motivation,

intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. This number was then divided

by 5 to determine the overall transformational leadership score.

Transactional leadership was calculated similarly by identifying the two scores for

contingent reward and management-by-exception active. Passive Avoidant Leadership

was calculated using the scores of management-by-exception passive and laissez-faire.

This process may be calculated using individual surveys, combined to showcase

leadership styles from a group of instructors, or as it was used in this study: all surveys

were aggregated to give a holistic perspective on the department instructor team. The last

nine questions of the survey addressed the outcome variables using four questions

measuring effectiveness, three questions measuring extra effort, and two questions

measuring follower satisfaction, and the same process was used in the calculation of

scores.

Table 7

Relationship Between Survey Protocol and Theoretical Framework

Theoretical Framework Category	Interview Protocol Questions
Idealized influence attributed	10, 18, 21, 25
Idealized influence behavior	6, 14, 23, 34
Inspirational motivation	9, 13, 26, 36
Intellectual stimulation	2, 8, 30, 32
Individualized consideration	15, 19, 29, 31
Contingent reward	1, 11,16, 35
Management-by exception--active	4, 22, 24, 27
Management-by-exception--passive	3, 12, 17, 20
Laissez-faire	5, 7, 28, 33
Extra effort	39, 42, 44
Effectiveness	37, 40, 43, 45
Satisfaction	38, 41

Research Question 1

What relationship, if any, exists between community college faculty transformational leadership style and the students' (a) willingness to exert extra effort, (b) perception of leader effectiveness, and (c) satisfaction with their instructor?

The results from the instructor self-assessment, the MLQ 5X Short, revealed the level of instructors' transformational leadership skills. The instrument consists of 45 behavioral statements using a five-point Likert-type style rating system ranging from 0-4, where 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, and 4 = frequently, if not always. As noted earlier, each leadership style was tabulated according to the scoring key for the MLQ. Table 8 highlights the transformational leadership, student extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction for all instructors.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics for Transformational Leadership and Extra Effort, Effectiveness, and Satisfaction (N = 14)

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
MTFIN	14	2.70	3.80	3.3786	.37453
MEXSN	14	2.30	3.90	3.2429	.50186
MEFFSN	14	1.30	3.80	3.1214	.70403
MSATSN	14	2.50	3.90	3.3429	.48630

Note: MTFIN: Transformational Leadership/Instructor
MEXSN: Extra Effort/Student
MEFFSN: Effectiveness/Student
MSATSN: Satisfaction/Student

Table 9 indicates the frequency of occurrence and percentages for the total transformational leadership scores for all 14 instructors. Transformational leadership scores ranged from 2.70 to 3.80.

Table 9

Transformational Leadership of Instructors (MTFIN)

Scores	Frequency	Percentage
2.70	1	7.1
2.90	1	7.1
3.00	1	7.1
3.10	2	14.3
3.20	1	7.1
3.40	1	7.1
3.50	1	7.1
3.60	1	7.1
3.70	2	14.3
3.80	3	21.4
Total	14	100.0

Note: Scale: 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, and 4 = frequently, if not always.

The results from the student self-assessment survey revealed the level of extra effort according to the MLQ 5X Short. It consists of 45 behavioral statements using a five-point Likert type style rating system ranging from 0-4, where 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, and 4 = frequently, if not always. As noted earlier, each outcome was tabulated according to the scoring key for the MLQ. Table 10 indicates the frequency of occurrence for the extra effort of the students based on the 14 instructors. There was a range from 2.30 to 3.90 for the extra effort score.

Table 10

Student Self-assessment: Level of Students' Extra Effort (MEXSN)

Scores	Frequency	Percentage
2.30	1	7.1
2.50	1	7.1
2.70	1	7.1
2.90	1	7.1
3.10	2	14.3
3.30	2	14.3
3.50	1	7.1
3.60	2	14.3
3.80	2	14.3
3.90	1	7.1
Total	14	100.0

Note: Scale: 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, and 4 = frequently, if not always.

The results from the student self-assessment survey reveal the level of effectiveness of the instructor according to the MLQ 5X Short. Table 11 indicates the frequency of occurrence for effectiveness of the 14 instructors. There was a range from 1.30 to 3.80 for the effectiveness score.

Table 11

Student Self-assessment: Level of Effectiveness (MEFFSN) of Instructors

Scores	Frequency	Percentage
1.30	1	7.1
2.30	1	7.1
2.70	1	7.1
2.90	2	14.3
3.10	3	21.4
3.60	2	14.3
3.70	1	7.1
3.80	3	21.4
Total	14	100.0

Note: Scale: 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, and 4 = frequently, if not always.

The results from the student self-assessment survey revealed the level of satisfaction with the instructor according to the MLQ 5X Short. Table 12 indicates the frequency of occurrence for students' satisfaction with the 14 instructors. There was a range from 2.50 to 3.90 for satisfaction score.

Table 12

Student Self-assessment: Satisfaction (MSATSN) With Instructor

Scores	Frequency	Percentage
2.50	2	14.3
2.90	2	14.3
3.20	2	14.3
3.40	1	7.1
3.50	1	7.1
3.70	2	14.3
3.80	3	21.4
3.90	1	7.1
Total	14	100.0

Note: Scale: 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, and 4 = frequently, if not always.

The results of the correlational analyses in Table 13 indicate that two of the three correlation coefficients were statistically significant. When instructors demonstrated high transformational leadership, there was a high correlation to student extra effort (.70) and student satisfaction with the instructor (.77) and a moderate correlation with effectiveness (.54).

Table 13

Correlations: Transformational Leadership, Extra Effort, Effectiveness, and Satisfaction (N = 14)

Variables	Statistic	MTFIN	MEXSN	MEFFSN	MSATSN
MTFIN	Pearson Correlation	1	.697**	.533*	.770**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.006	.050	.001
MEXSN	Pearson Correlation	.697**	1	.938**	.985**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	06		.000	.000
MEFFSN	Pearson Correlation	.533*	.938**	1	.923**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.050	.000		.000
MSATSN	Pearson Correlation	.770**	.985**	.923**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.000	

Note. **Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
MTFIN: Transformational Leadership/Instructor
MEXSN: Extra Effort/Student
MEFFSN: Effectiveness/Student
MSATSN: Satisfaction/Student

A regression analysis was performed for each of the student outcomes. Tables 14-16 show that transformational leadership style was a statistically significant predictor of student extra effort (F=11.30, p <.01). This predictor explained 49% of the variance in extra effort of the students. Based on the regression equation, as transformational leadership increased by 1, extra effort increased by .934. The model summary table gives an R value of .70, the multiple correlation coefficient, and an r² of .49. This means that only 49% of the variance was shared between transformational leadership style and extra effort of the students.

Table 14

ANOVA^a: Students' Extra Effort

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	1.590	1	1.590	11.330	.006[b]
Residual	1.684	12	.140		
Total	3.274	13			

Note. [a.]Dependent Variable: MEXSN Extra Effort/Student. [b.]Predictors: (Constant), MTFIN Transformational Leadership/Instructor.

Table 15

Coefficients^a: Students' Extra Effort

Variable Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	.088	.943		.093	.927
MTFIN	.934	.277	.697	3.366	.006

Note. [a]Dependent Variable: MEXSN Extra Effort/Student

Table 16

Residuals Statistics^a: Students' Extra Effort

Values	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	2.6092	3.6364	3.2429	.34974	14
Residual	-.7761	.6371	.0000	.35993	14
Std. Predicted Value	-1.812	1.125	.000	1.000	14
Std. Residual	-2.072	1.701	.000	.961	14

Note. [a]Dependent Variable: MEXSN = Extra Effort/Student

The transformational leadership style was not a statistically significant predictor of effectiveness of the instructor (F=4.76, p >.05) as indicated in Tables 17-19. This predictor explained 28% of the variance in effectiveness of the instructor. Based on the regression equation, as transformational leadership increased by 1, effectiveness increased by 1. The model summary table gives an R value of .53 which is the multiple correlation coefficient, and an r^2 of .28. This means that only 28% of the variance was shared between transformational leadership style and effectiveness of the instructor.

Table 17

ANOVA[a]: Instructor Effectiveness

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	.829	1	1.829	4.757	.050[b]
Residual	4.614	12	.385		
Total	6.444	13			

Note. [a]Dependent Variable: MEFFSN=Effectiveness/Student. [b]Predictors: (Constant), MTFIN = Transformational Leadership/Instructor

Table 18

Coefficients[a]: Instructor Effectiveness

Variable Model	Unstandardized Coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	-.262	1.560		.168	.869
MTFIN	1.002	.459	.533	2.181	.050

Note. [a]Dependent Variable: MEFFSN = Effectiveness/ Student

Table 19

Residuals Statistics[a]: Instructor Effectiveness

Variables	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	2.4418	3.5435	3.1214	.37512	14
Residual	-1.6426	.6571	.0000	.59577	14
Std. Predicted Value	-1.812	1.125	.000	1.000	14
Std. Residual	-2.649	1.060	.000	.961	14

Note. [a]Dependent Variable: MEFFSN = Effectiveness/Student

Tables 20-22 show that transformational leadership style was a statistically significant predictor of satisfaction of the instructor (F=17.46, p <.001). This predictor explained 59% of the variance in satisfaction of the instructor. Based on the regression equation, as transformational leadership increased by 1, satisfaction increased by 1. The model summary table gives an R value of .77 which is the multiple correlation coefficient, and an r² of .59. This means that only 59% of the variance was shared between transformational leadership style and satisfaction of the instructor.

Table 20

ANOVA[a]: Students' Satisfaction

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	1.822	1	1.822	17.463	.001[b]
Residual	1.252	12	.104		
Total	3.074	13			

Note. [a]Dependent Variable: MSATSN = Satisfaction/Student. [b]Predictors: (Constant), MTFIN = Transformational Leadership/Instructor

Table 21

Coefficients[a]: Students' Satisfaction

Variable Model	Unstandardized Coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	-.034	.813		-.042	.967
MTFIN	1.000	.239	.770	4.179	.001

Note. [a]Dependent Variable: MSATSN = Satisfaction/Student

Table 22

Residuals Statistics[a]: Students' Satisfaction

Values	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	2.6646	3.7641	3.3429	.37439	14
Residual	-.6644	.5357	.0000	.31035	14
Std. Predicted Value	-1.812	1.125	.000	1.000	14
Std. Residual	-2.057	1.658	.000	.961	14

Note. [a]Dependent Variable: MSATSN = Satisfaction/Student

Research Question 2

What differences, if any, exist in the full range leadership theory profiles of

faculty?

Instructor data (N = 25) were tested using the Mann-Whitney U Test comparing

the type of class, hybrid and face-to-face, with instructor transformational leadership

style. Table 23 contains the descriptive statistics for the dependent variable of full range

leadership styles and the independent variable of type of class: hybrid or face-to-face

using instructor survey data completed for 25 classes. MTFI had a mean response of 3.36

with a standard deviation of .325. MTAI had a mean response of 2.25 with a standard

deviation of .234. MLFI had a mean response of .57 with a standard deviation of .679.

The type of class had a mean response of .72 and a standard deviation of .458.

In Table 24, the mean rankings show that seven hybrid classes ($\underline{M}_{rank}$ = 12.57) and

18 face-to-face ($\underline{M}_{rank}$ = 13.17) fell into the transformational (MTFI) leadership style.

The mean rankings show that seven hybrid classes ($\underline{M}_{rank}$ = 12.00) and 18 face-to-face

($\underline{M}_{rank}$ = 13.39) fell into the transactional (MTAI) leadership style. The mean rankings

showed that seven hybrid classes ($\underline{M}_{rank}$ = 15.57) and 18 face-to-face ($\underline{M}_{rank}$ = 12.00)

classes fell into the laissez-faire (MLFI) leadership style.

The Mann Whitney U indicated no statistically significant difference in MTAI,

MFAI, and MLFI. The Man Whitney U for MTAI was 60.00 (z = -.184, p >.05); for

MFAI, it was 56.00 (z = -.433, p >.05); and for MLFI, it was 45.00 (z = -1.13, p >.05).

Thus, there were no statistically significant differences in the transformational,

transactional or laissez-faire leadership styles and the type of class.

Table 23

Descriptive Statistics: Type of Class

Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
MTFI	25	3.3660	.32555
MTAI	25	2.2520	.23473
MLFI	25	.5700	.67900
Type of Class	25	.72	.458

Note: MTFI = Transformational leadership score/instructor
MTAI = Transactional leadership score/instructor
MLFI = Laissez-faire leadership score/ instructor

Table 24

Mean Ranks: Type of Class (N = 25)

Variables	Type of Class	N	Mean Rank
	Hybrid	7	12.57
MTFI	Face-to-face	18	13.17
	Hybrid	7	12.00
MTAI	Face-to-face	18	13.39
	Hybrid	7	15.57
MLFI	Face-to-face	18	12.00

Note: MTFI = Transformational leadership score/instructor
              MTAI = Transactional leadership score/instructor
              MLFI = Laissez-faire leadership score/ instructor

Instructor data (N =25) were tested using the Mann-Whitney U Test comparing the summer A and summer full term with instructor transformational leadership style. Table 25 contains descriptive statistics for the dependent variable of full range leadership styles and the independent variable, type of summer session, summer A and summer full term. Instructor survey data from 25 classes were used in the analysis. MTFI had a mean response of 3.36 with a standard deviation of .325. MTAI had a mean response of 2.25 with a standard deviation of .234. MLFI had a mean response of .57 with a standard deviation of .679. The summer session had a mean response of .40 and standard deviation of .50.

Table 25

Descriptive Statistics: Summer Sessions

| | | | Std. |
Variables	N	Mean	Deviation
MTFI	25	3.3660	.32555
MTAI	25	2.2520	.23473
MLFI	25	.5700	.67900
Summer Sessions	25	.40	.500

Note: MTFI = Transformational leadership score/instructor
MTAI = Transactional leadership score/instructor
MLFI = Laissez-faire leadership score/ instructor

In Table 26, the mean rankings show that 15 full term classes (M_{rank} = 12.00) and 10 summer A term classes (M_{rank} = 14.50) fell into the transformational (MTFI) leadership style. The mean rankings show that 15 summer full term classes (M_{rank} = 11.67) and 10 summer A term classes (M_{rank} = 15.00) fell into the transactional (MTAI) leadership style. The mean rankings show that 10 summer full term classes (M_{rank} = 13.73) and 10 summer A term classes (M_{rank} = 11.90) fell into laissez-faire (MLFI) leadership style.

The Mann Whitney U tests indicated no statistically significant difference for MTFI, MFAI, or MLFI. The Mann Whitney U for MTFI was 60.00 (z = -.842, p >.05); for MFAI was 55.00 (z = -1.13, p >.05), and for MLFI was 64.00 (z = -.633, p >.05). Thus, there were no statistically significant differences in transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire leadership style and the type of summer session, summer A or summer full term.

Table 26

Mean Ranks: Summer Sessions (N = 25)

Variables	Summer Terms	N	Mean Rank
	Full Term	15	12.00
MTFI	A	10	14.50
	Full Term	15	11.67
MTAI	A	10	15.00
	Full Term	15	13.73
MLFI	A	10	11.90

Note: MTFI = Transformational leadership score/instructor
MTAI = Transactional leadership score/instructor
MLFI = Laissez-faire leadership score/ instructor

The calculation of Kruskal Wallis was conducted to compare instructor age and full range leadership styles. For MTFI, there was a statistically significant difference (p<.013) in the age of the instructor and transformational leadership ($\chi^2 = 8.761$, df = 2, p<.05). Seven instructors in the 41-55 age category ranked higher ($\underline{M}_{rank}= 18.86$) than the 13 instructors age 56 or older ($\underline{M}_{rank}= 12.38$) and the 5 instructors age 26-40 ($\underline{M}_{rank}= 6.40$).

For MTAI, there was no statistically significant difference (p>.062) in the age of the instructor and transactional leadership ($\chi^2 = 5.575$, df = 2, p>.05). Five instructors age 26-40 ranked highest ($\underline{M}_{rank}= 18.30$); seven instructors in the 41-55 age ranked mid-range ($\underline{M}_{rank}= 14.93$), and the 13 instructors age 56 or older ranked lowest ($\underline{M}_{rank}= 9.92$).

For MFLI, there was no statistically significant difference (p>.112) in the age of the instructor and laissez-faire leadership (χ^2 = 4.385, df = 2, p>.05). Five instructors age 26-40 ranked the highest ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 17.40), 13 instructors age 56 or older ranked mid-range ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 13.54), and the seven instructors in the 41-55 age category ranked lowest ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 8.86). Statistics related to instructor age are presented in Tables 27 and 28.

Table 27

Descriptive Statistics: Instructor Age

Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
MTFI	25	3.3660	.32555
MTAI	25	2.2520	.23473
MLFI	25	.5700	.67900
Instructor Age	25	2.32	.802

Note: MTFI = Transformational leadership score/instructor
MTAI = Transactional leadership score/instructor
MLFI = Laissez-faire leadership score/ instructor

Table 28

Mean Ranks: Instructor Age (N = 25)

Variables	Instructor Age	N	Mean Rank
MTFI	26-40	5	6.40
	41-55	7	18.86
	56 or older	13	12.38
MTAI	26-40	5	18.30
	41-55	7	14.93
	56 or older	13	9.92
MLFI	26-40	5	17.40
	41-55	7	8.86
	56 or older	13	13.54

Note: MTFI = Transformational leadership score/instructor
MTAI = Transactional leadership score/instructor
MLFI = Laissez-faire leadership score/ instructor

Instructor data (N = 25) were tested using the Mann-Whitney U Test comparing the gender with the instructor transformational leadership style. Table 29 contains descriptive statistics for the dependent variable of full range leadership styles and the independent variable of instructor gender. There were 25 classes (N=25) recorded. MTFI had a mean response of 3.36 with a standard deviation of .325. MTAI had a mean response of 2.25 with a standard deviation of .234. MLFI had a mean response of .57 with a standard deviation of .679. Instructor gender had a mean response of .68 and standard deviation of .476.

In Table 30, the mean rankings show that eight female instructors (M_{rank} = 12.88) and 17 male instructors (M_{rank} = 13.06) fell into the transformational (MTFI) leadership

style. Eight female instructors ($\underline{M}_{rank}$ = 20.13) and 17 male instructors ($\underline{M}_{rank}$ = 9.65) fell

into the transactional (MTAI) leadership style. Also, eight female instructors ($\underline{M}_{rank}$ =

12.75) and 17 male instructors ($\underline{M}_{rank}$ = 13.12) fell into the laissez-faire (MLFI)

leadership style.

There was no statistically significant difference for MTFI, MFAI, or MLFI. The

Mann Whitney U test for MTFI was 67.00 (z= -.059, p >.05); for MFAI, 11.00 (z= -3.39,

p >.05); for MLFI, 66.00 (z= -.121, p >.05). Thus, there was no statistically significant

difference in transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire leadership style and

instructor gender. Statistics related to instructor gender are presented in Tables 29 and

30.

Table 29

Descriptive Statistics: Instructor Gender

Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
MTFI	25	3.3660	.32555
MTAI	25	2.2520	.23473
MLFI	25	.5700	.67900
Instructor Gender	25	.68	.476

Note: MTFI = Transformational leadership score/instructor
MTAI = Transactional leadership score/instructor
MLFI = Laissez-faire leadership score/ instructor

117

Table 30

Mean Ranks: Instructor Gender (N = 25)

Variables	Instructor Gender	N	Mean Rank
	Female	8	12.88
MTFI	Male	17	13.06
	Female	8	20.13
MTAI	Male	17	9.65
	Female	8	12.75
MLFI	Male	17	13.12

Note: MTFI = Transformational leadership score/instructor
MTAI = Transactional leadership score/instructor
MLFI = Laissez-faire leadership score/ instructor

The calculation of Kruskal Wallis test was conducted to compare instructor years teaching in higher education and full range leadership styles. For MTFI, there was no statistically significant difference (p>.121) in the years teaching in higher education and transformational leadership (χ^2 = 7.299, df = 4, p>.05). The three instructors with 11-15 years teaching in higher education ranked the highest ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 21.67). The next highest ranking was for the eight instructors with 1-3 years ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 13.75), followed by five instructors with 7-10 years of experience ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 13.20), two instructors with 4-6 years ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 13.00) and lastly seven instructors with 16 or more years of teaching experience ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 8.29).

For MTAI, there was a statistically significant difference (p<.015) in the years teaching in higher education and transactional leadership (χ^2 = 12.363, df = 4, p<.05).

118

The five instructors with 7-10 years of experience ranked the highest (M_{rank}= 18.20). The

next highest ranking was for the eight instructors with 1-3 years (M_{rank}= 16.81), followed

by two instructors with 4-6 years (M_{rank}= 15.25), seven instructors with 16 or more years

of teaching experience (M_{rank}= 7.50), and lastly, three instructors with 11-15 years

teaching experience in higher education who ranked lowest (M_{rank}= 5.50).

For MFLI, there was no statistically significant difference (p>.216) in the years

teaching in higher education and laissez-faire leadership (χ^2 = 5.779, df = 4, p>.05). The

eight instructors with 1-3 years were the highest ranked (M_{rank}= 16.13). The next highest

ranking was for the seven instructors with 16 or more years of teaching experience

(M_{rank}= 14.71), followed by five instructors with 7-10 years of experience (M_{rank}= 11.20),

three instructors with 11-15 years teaching in higher education (M_{rank}= 9.00), and lastly,

two instructors with 4-6 years who were the lowest ranked (M_{rank}= 5.00). Statistics

related to year of teaching experience are presented in Tables 31 and 32.

Table 31

Descriptive Statistics: Instructors' Years Teaching in Higher Education

Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
MTFI	25	3.3660	.32555
MTAI	25	2.2520	.23473
MLFI	25	.5700	.67900
Instructor years teaching in Higher Education	25	1.96	1.645

Note: MTFI = Transformational leadership score/instructor
MTAI = Transactional leadership score/instructor
MLFI = Laissez-faire leadership score/ instructor

Table 32

Mean Ranks: Instructors' Years of Teaching in Higher Education (N = 25)

Variables	Years Teaching in Higher Education	N	Mean Rank
MTFI	1-3 years	8	13.75
	4-6 years	2	13.00
	7-10 years	5	13.20
	11-15 years	3	21.67
	16 or more years	7	8.29
MTAI	1-3 years	8	16.81
	4-6 years	2	15.25
	7-10 years	5	18.20
	11-15 years	3	5.50
	16 or more years	7	7.50
MLFI	1-3 years	8	16.13
	4-6 years	2	5.00
	7-10 years	5	11.20
	11-15 years	3	9.00
	16 or more years	7	14.71

Note: MTFI = Transformational leadership score/instructor
MTAI = Transactional leadership score/instructor
MLFI = Laissez-faire leadership score/ instructor

The calculation of Kruskal Wallis test was conducted to compare instructor years teaching at Community College X and full range leadership styles. For MTFI, there was no statistically significant difference (p>.148) in the years teaching at Community College X and transformational leadership (χ^2 = 6.775, df = 4, p>.05). The three instructors with 11-15 years teaching in Community College X ranked the highest

($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 19.67). The next highest ranking were the four instructors with 7-10 years of experience ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 15.50), followed by three instructors with 4-6 years ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 15.33), nine instructors with 1-3 years ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 12.56), and lastly the six instructors with 16 or more years of teaching experience at Community College X who were the lowest ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 7.50) ranking.

For MTAI, there was a statistically significant difference (p<.013) in the years teaching in Community College X and transactional leadership (χ^2 = 12.747, df = 4, p<.05). The three instructors with 4-6 years teaching in Community College X ranked the highest ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 17.50). The next highest ranking were the four instructors with 7-10 years of experience ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 17.25), followed by nine instructors with 1-3 years ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 16.45), six instructors with 16 or more years ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 6.50), and lastly, the three instructors with 11-15 years teaching experience in Community College X who were the lowest ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 5.50).

For MFLI, there was no statistically significant difference (p>.641) in the years teaching in Community College X and laissez-faire leadership (χ^2 = 2.519, df = 4, p>.05). The nine instructors with 1-3 years teaching in Community College X ranked the highest ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 14.89). The next highest ranking were the three instructors with 4-6 years ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 14.67), followed by six instructors with 16 or more years of teaching experience ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 13.00), three instructors with 11-15 years ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 11.67), and lastly, four instructors with 7-10 years of experience who were the lowest ($\underline{M}_{rank}$= 8.50) ranked. Statistics related to years of teaching at Community College X are presented in Tables 33 and 34.

Table 33

Descriptive Statistics: Instructors' Years of Teaching at Community College X

Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
MTFI	25	3.3660	.32555
MTAI	25	2.2520	.23473
MLFI	25	.5700	.67900
Instructor years of teaching in Community College X	25	1.76	1.640

Note: MTFI = Transformational leadership score/instructor
MTAI = Transactional leadership score/instructor
MLFI = Laissez-faire leadership score/ instructor

Table 34

Mean Ranks: Instructors' Years of Teaching in Community College X (N = 25)

Variables	Instructors' Years Teaching in Community College X	N	Mean Rank
MTFI	1-3 years	9	12.56
	4-6 years	3	15.33
	7-10 years	4	15.50
	11-15 years	3	19.67
	16 or more years	6	7.50
MTAI	1-3 years	9	16.44
	4-6 years	3	17.50
	7-10 years	4	17.25
	11-15 years	3	5.50
	16 or more years	6	6.50
MLFI	1-3 years	9	14.89
	4-6 years	3	14.67
	7-10 years	4	8.50
	11-15 years	3	11.67
	16 or more years	6	13.00

Note:　MTFI = Transformational leadership score/instructor
MTAI = Transactional leadership score/instructor
MLFI = Laissez-faire leadership score/ instructor

The calculation of Kruskal Wallis test was performed to compare the size of the organizations in which instructors were leaders and full range leadership styles. For MTFI, there was a statistically significant difference (p<.004) in the size of the organization in which they were leaders and transformational leadership (χ^2 = 13.146, df = 3, p<.05). Three instructors who were leaders in organizations with over 5,000

employees ranked the highest (M_{rank}= 22.00), followed by the next highest ranking of

four instructors who led in organizations of 501 to 5,000 employees (M_{rank}= 21.00), then

11 instructors in organizations of 51 to 500 employees (M_{rank}= 10.00), and lastly, the

lowest group, seven instructors leading in organizations of under 50 employees (M_{rank}=

9.29).

For MTAI, there was no statistically significant difference (p>.173) in the size of

the organization in which instructors were leaders and transactional leadership (χ^2 =

4.985, df = 3, p>.05). Seven instructors who led in an organization under 50 employees

ranked the highest (M_{rank}= 18.14). The next highest ranking were three instructors who

were leaders in organizations of over 5,000 employees (M_{rank}= 11.50), followed by 11

instructors in organizations of 51 to 500 employees (M_{rank}= 11.05), and lastly the lowest

ranking, four instructors who led in organizations with 501 to 5,000 employees (M_{rank}=

10.50).

For MFLI, there was a statistically significant difference (p<.006) in the size of

the organization in which instructors were leaders and laissez-faire leadership (χ^2 =

12.341, df = 3, p<.05). Seven instructors who led in organizations of under 50 employees

ranked the highest (M_{rank}= 20.86). The next highest ranking were the 11 instructors

leading in an organization with 51 to 500 employees (M_{rank}= 10.64), followed by four

instructors who led in an organization of 501 to 5,000 employees (M_{rank}= 9.75), and

lastly, three instructors who were leaders in organizations with over 5,000 employees

who were the lowest ranked (M_{rank}= 7.67). Statistics related to the size of the

organization in which the instructors were leaders are presented in Tables 35 and 36.

Table 35

Descriptive Statistics: Organization Size Where Instructor was a Leader

Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
MTFI	25	3.3660	.32555
MTAI	25	2.2520	.23473
MLFI	25	.5700	.67900
Organization size where instructor was leader	25	1.12	.971

Note: MTFI = Transformational leadership score/instructor
MTAI = Transactional leadership score/instructor
MLFI = Laissez-faire leadership score/ instructor

Table 36

Mean Ranks: Organization Size Where Instructor was a Leader (N = 25)

Variables	Organization Size	N	Mean Rank
	Under 50 employees	7	9.29
	51 to 500 employees	11	10.00
MTFI	501 to 5,000 employees	4	21.00
	Over 5,000 employees	3	22.00
	Under 50 employees	7	18.14
	51 to 500 employees	11	11.05
MTAI	501 to 5,000 employees	4	10.50
	Over 5,000 employees	3	11.50
	Under 50 employees	7	20.86
	51 to 500 employees	11	10.64
MLFI	501 to 5,000 employees	4	9.75
	Over 5,000 employees	3	7.67

Note: MTFI = Transformational leadership score/instructor
MTAI = Transactional leadership score/instructor
MLFI = Laissez-faire leadership score/ instructor

Instructor data (N = 25) were tested using the Mann-Whitney U Test comparing

the number of employees reporting to the instructor and transformational leadership style.

Statistics related to the number of employees who reported to the instructor are presented

in Tables 37 and 38. Table 37 contains the descriptive statistics for the dependent

variable of full range leadership styles and the independent variable of how many

individuals reported to them in their prior organizations. Data were obtained from

instructors for the 25 classes taught in the summer sessions. MTFI had a mean response

of 3.36 with a standard deviation of .325. MTAI had a mean response of 2.25 with a

standard deviation of .234. MLFI had a mean response of .57 with a standard deviation

of .679. The number of individuals instructors had reporting to them in their prior

organization yielded a mean response of .44 and standard deviation of .507.

Table 37

Descriptive Statistics: Employees Reporting to Instructors?

Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
MTFI	25	3.3660	.32555
MTAI	25	2.2520	.23473
MLFI	25	.5700	.67900
Employees reporting to instructor	25	.44	.507

Note: MTFI = Transformational leadership score/instructor
MTAI = Transactional leadership score/instructor
MLFI = Laissez-faire leadership score/ instructor

In Table 38, the mean rankings showed that 14 instructors had 1-20 employees

reporting to them (M_{rank} = 12.00) and 11 instructors had 21 or more employees reporting

to them (M_{rank} = 14.27) and fell into the transformational (MTFI) leadership style. The

mean rankings show that 14 instructors had 1-20 employees reporting to them (M_{rank} =

16.64), and 11 instructors had 21 or more employees reporting to them (M_{rank} = 8.36) that

fell into the transactional (MTAI) leadership style. The mean rankings show that 14

instructors had 1-20 employees reporting to them (M_{rank} = 15.29) and 11 instructors had

21 or more employees reporting to them (M_{rank} = 10.09) that fell into the laissez-faire

(MLFI) leadership style.

There was no statistically significant difference for MTFI and MLFI. The Mann

Whitney U for MTFI was 63.00 (z= -.438, p >.05) and for MLFI 45.00 (z= -1.817, p

>.05). The Mann Whitney U for MFAI was 26.00, and there was a statistically

significant difference (z= -2.851, p <.05) for MFAI. Thus, there was no statistically

significant difference in transformational or laissez-faire leadership style and the number

of employees reporting to them in the organization. There was a statistically significant

difference in transactional leadership style and the number of employees reporting to

them in the organization.

Table 38

Mean Ranks: Employees Reporting to Instructors (N = 25)

Variables	Employees Reporting to Instructors	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
	1-20 employees	14	12.00	168.00
MTFI	21-above	11	14.27	157.00
	1-20 employees	14	16.64	233.00
MTAI	21-above	11	8.36	92.00
	1-20 employees	14	15.29	214.00
MLFI	21-above	11	10.09	111.00

Note: MTFI = Transformational leadership score/instructor
          MTAI = Transactional leadership score/instructor
          MLFI = Laissez-faire leadership score/ instructor

Summary

Chapter 4 has presented analyses of the data collected from 14 instructors and 313

students in the Business Department of Community College X utilizing the Multifactor

Leadership Questionnaire. This feedback was used to answer the research questions that

guided this study. A summary, conclusions and future recommendations are presented in

Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This study focused on the relationship of leadership styles and student outcomes in the community college classroom. The results and implications of this study were based upon a self-administered survey methodology of instructors and students in a higher education environment which endorsed the application of the conceptual framework of Avolio and Bass (1995) pertaining to transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership theory. Prior to the analysis of information gathered in the study, a description of the population and its impact on the results of the study will be discussed.

Population and Sampling

Approval for the study was gained in the spring of 2014 to collect data at Community College X during the summer semesters because full- and part-time instructors with diverse interests were teaching. Enrollment during this time was projected, based upon previous summer semesters, to be approximately 1,200 students taking face-to-face and hybrid classes. The instructor population for the Business Department of Community College X consisted of 52 instructors comprised of 12 full-time and 40 part-time instructors. The Business Department of Community College X offered face-to-face, hybrid and online classes during the summer semester. Because the researcher wanted to concentrate on the aspects of leadership within the classroom environment, the decision was made to survey only students in face-to-face and hybrid

classes, thereby investigating the in-classroom experience with instructors. In

researching literature on the two types of curricula delivery, i.e., online vs. face-to-face,

the researcher found the dynamics to be very different, further supporting the final

decision to survey those in a physical classroom environment so as to assess the in-

classroom experience with the instructor.

Once summer enrollment was completed, the numbers of students enrolled was

significantly lower than expected. Summer A population included 12 classes with 231

students enrolled for face-to-face and hybrid courses. Summer full term included 19

classes with 282 students enrolled in face-to-face and hybrid courses. It was realized that

a total of 16 instructors, teaching multiple classes taught the 31 classes in which 513

students were enrolled in summer A and summer full term. Two of the instructors

elected not to participate in the study, reducing the participating instructors to 14 and the

available classes to 25. This impacted the way in which the data could be analyzed. The

result was that during summer A, 10 classes of students were surveyed with a total

enrollment of 145 students. For the summer full term, 15 classes with a total enrollment

of 168 students were surveyed. Of the 409 students enrolled, 313 completed surveys for

a 77% response rate.

The data collected were sufficient for the data analysis required for Research

Question 1 relating to student outcome. Research Question 2, however, required the use

of a non-parametric analysis for two reasons: The first was due to the small number of

instructors. According to Dillman, Smyth, and Christian (2009), to prevent a sampling

error, the expectation was to gain survey results from at least 20 of the 52 instructors to

meet the data collection criteria. As mentioned, due to circumstances beyond the

researcher's control, this study included a small sample of instructors for the full range

leadership style scores. This impacts the effect size and the ability to generalize over a

larger sample. Any change in the data collected would have a tremendous impact on the

data analysis (Stevens, 2007). Therefore the information collected cannot be generalized

across the community college population. The second was the expectation of varied

leadership experiences including leadership and non-leadership roles. The 14 instructor

responses all included leadership experience with a number of direct reports. Because the

instructor respondent group was small, the findings may not be comparable to those of

the total community college population.

Research Question 1

What relationship, if any, exists between community college faculty's

transformational leadership style and the students' (a) willingness to exert extra effort,

(b) perception of leader effectiveness, and (c) satisfaction with their instructors?

This question addressed the relationship among the transformational leadership

style and the student self-reported willingness to exert extra effort, instructor

effectiveness, and satisfaction with the instructor. The transformational leadership style

was based on the Avolio and Bass (1995) model of full range leadership theory. The

highest score on the MLQ was 4.0 indicating a style as recognized "frequently if not

always," and a score above 3.0 indicated "fairly often." Instructors' transformational

mean score was 3.4. The three outcome scores for the students were all above the fairly

132

often score with mean scores for student extra effort at 3.2, instructor effectiveness at 3.1, and satisfaction with the instructor at 3.3. The findings were consistent with a number of studies analyzing the relationship of instructor transformational leadership with student outcomes (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2009; Pounder, 2008a; Walumbwa et al., 2004). In this study, instructors' transformational leadership mean score of 3.4 was considered high and had a correlation with student extra effort of .70, a statistically significant predictor of student extra effort. High instructor transformational leadership also had a high correlation to student satisfaction (.77) which was a statistically significant predictor of student satisfaction with the instructor. Finally, when the instructor had high transformational leadership, there was a moderate correlation to instructor effectiveness of .54 but not a statistically significant predictor of instructor effectiveness. This adds to the findings of previous researchers regarding the value of transformational leadership in the classroom and higher student engagement and satisfaction.

Research Question 2

What differences, if any, exist in the full range leadership theory profiles of faculty?

Over the two weeks of data collection, a total of 14 of the 16 instructors were surveyed with the leader's version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5X Short. This survey included the 45-item survey along with eight demographic questions, three of which were designed to learn about the leadership experience of each instructor. The initial assumption had been that there would be a difference that might be attributed to

133

instructor backgrounds, i.e., previous leadership and no previous leadership experience; however, all instructors had some level of leadership experience, which led to the conclusion there was no statistically significant difference in the leadership experience.

There has been limited research about transformational leadership in the higher education classroom. In the review of research for this study, the history or leadership experience of instructors was not explored. According to Frittz (2005) "Leadership in the classroom is more complex than had previously been considered" (p. 130). He recommended that researchers explore the background of the instructors including the industry in which they led along with comparison to academic history. The additional demographic information gathered in the present study was used to gain insight into the background of each of the instructors and to determine if it might have impacted the classroom environment. The information gathered was informative but limited because of the inability to compare the transformational leadership differences of instructors with and without previous leadership experience.

A total of 14 instructors taught the 25 summer session classes, some teaching multiple classes during both summer A and full summer term. When instructors taught multiple classes, they were permitted to let a completed survey be used multiple times This resulted in a total of 25 surveys representing data for the 25 classes taught in summer A and summer full term being completed for the 14 instructors. This dynamic of multiple classes may have affected the results.

This study gave additional insight into the instructor and the correlation of student outcomes. There was no impact regarding the type of class; face to face and hybrid classes, the summer session attended or the gender of the instructor. In fact, the findings in this study regarding gender were similar to those of Walumbwa et al. (2004).

Another test was conducted to compare instructor age and full range leadership styles. There was an impact regarding instructor age where the statistical analysis showed transformational leadership was statistically significant with the largest group of instructors in the 41-55 age category. In looking closely at the data, multiple classes were taught by one particular instructor who was over 56 years of age and had taught a total of 7 of the 13 classes in that age category. These findings cannot be generalized because a different sample may well have yielded a different result.

There were two analyses performed to evaluate the number of years teaching in higher education and years teaching at Community College X and the full range leadership style. This was to gain feedback on the time in the higher education arena and level of leadership style. Both analyses garnered the same results where the highest impact was from those instructors with transactional leadership including the top instructors with 1–10 years of teaching experience. Further investigation is warranted to showcase the impact of time in the higher education classroom and its impact on leadership style.

The last two demographic questions asked of the instructors centered on prior leadership roles in the private sector or the military and were designed to show how

135

instructors may have gained leadership skills outside of higher education classrooms. After indicating prior experience, instructors were asked to respond to two specific questions focused on (a) size of organization and (b) numbers of individuals reporting to instructors in prior employment. All 14 of the instructors had prior experience and provided the additional requested information. The size of the organization had an impact on those instructors with transformational and laissez-faire leadership styles. The interesting perspective was the instructors with transformational leadership experience were those who had led in large organizations of over 5,000 employees. This is compared with laissez-faire leaders leading in organizations with less than 50 employees. To further understand the leadership experience of the instructors, the last test was conducted to compare the number of employees reporting to the instructor and the instructor full range leadership style. According to Bolkan and Goodboy (2009) teachers must enhance student involvement and conduct effective classroom management by creating a positive influential and creative environment. Transformational leaders have been defined as those who increase the confidence of individuals or groups and move the challenges of followers to achievement and growth (Bass, 1985). Laissez-faire, also known as passive leadership, has been considered absent or avoidant in providing direction to the followers on the team. This result indicated that regardless of the number of direct reports, these two leadership styles were consistent in impact on employees. There was an impact of transactional leadership style and the number of employees reporting to the instructor. There was an indication that as the number of direct reports increases so does the level of transactional leadership. Transactional leadership,

according to Avolio and Bass (2002) occurs when power in the organization is used to influence followers' compliance with assignments and work standards; and agreed-upon tasks are completed resulting in rewards (Avolio & Bass, 2002).

Gaps created by this research

This study also left many questions or gaps in the literature. The original quest of the study was to look at leadership background and skills as comparison between instructors with and without leadership experience. This approach should still be considered. This study concentrated on one department in a Southeastern community college. A study should be conducted across a larger population of community colleges and potentially an even larger population of public universities. Also a study of larger clusters of class types to determine alleged leadership styles demonstrated in the classroom differ based on the category of class.

Implications

Leadership in the classroom has an effect on student learning which supports the value of transformational leadership in the community college classroom environment. This study sought to analyze the atmosphere of the classroom as a social organization, similar to a business environment, whereby the instructor functions as the leader in the classroom. In this study, the full-range leadership theory and the leadership experience of community college instructors and the impact on student outcomes were investigated.

According to Green (2009), effective teaching requires active leadership which, in turn, has a positive impact on students in the classroom. The conceptual framework used in the study was Avolio and Bass's (2004) full range leadership theory which analyzes leadership from the perspective that most leaders have a range of both transactional and transformational leadership styles. The MLQ was used to determine the level of leadership style each of the instructors brought to the classroom along with the level of student outcomes. Transformational leadership has been viewed as the most acceptable leadership model in the full range leadership theory, and in this study, that premise has been extended with the exploration of previous leadership experience of community college instructors.

With their experience, instructors have the ability to integrate components of transformational leadership behaviors; for example, setting the vision and motivating individuals to high performance into many aspects of their classroom environment. This impacts the students' experience in the classroom resulting in higher levels of student outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction. This could be accomplished by setting a clear vision of the expectations for assignments, classroom participation and engagement, along with communication through syllabi, coursework, rubrics, and learning methods in the classroom. A transformational leader in the classroom can create an energetic, flexible, inspiring, thought-provoking, and imaginative atmosphere where students have an understanding of how to relate learning to many aspects of their lives. Demonstration of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation,

and individualized consideration of students influences their development so they are able to reach their full potential.

Based on the literature, there was an optimistic expectation that transformational leadership would correlate with student satisfaction whereby the five factors would motivate students to be engaged at a higher level with course material. Instructors are also more likely to help students feel supported through assistance in all aspects of the educational experience. In this study, the correlation of transformational leadership was high for the three student outcome scores (student extra effort, instructor effectiveness, and satisfaction with the instructor), each of which were above the "fairly often" range. As noted, the findings were consistent with a number of studies analyzing the relationship of instructor transformational leadership with student outcomes (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2009; Pounder, 2008a; Walumbwa et al., 2004). Perhaps the expansion of tools and resources to increase the level of transformational and transactional leadership will benefit the instructors in their effectiveness in the classroom. This could provide direction and support development in building relationships, development of curriculum and delivery, and classroom management.

One factor that may have impacted this study was class size. Class experiences may have been structured to be more application based that those in large classes which are usually driven by lecture based methods. Another factor that may have impacted the feedback was the use of the MLQ. It is scripted in business dialogue which may have challenged the participants answering questions in a higher education environment where instruction is largely intangible. Also, students' perceptions of the instruction and their

overall satisfaction may not be evident at this time in their academic careers. The true realization may not be understood until the student enters into the corporate business world and has the opportunity to reflect on the leadership impact of the college experience.

Recommendations for Future Research

It is critical for the nation to have highly educated citizens for a strong democracy. Community colleges have developed into vital resources for affordable, easy access, high quality education along with developmental offerings for the local workforce, and student engagement has become a precursor of student success and motivation. Instructor leadership is one of many factors responsible for providing a healthy environment for the development of this process. Instructors' attentiveness to the curriculum and the classroom experience can enhance students' overall satisfaction and increase retention.

This study was conducted to explore community college faculty as leaders in relation to student effort, effectiveness, and overall satisfaction with the instructor along with their previous leadership experience. It is critical to establish an effective environment for students to gain the knowledge and experience to prepare for their business career. Future research focusing on transformational leadership in the classroom might include the following:

1. Increase the population to include a larger number of instructors that would permit a parametric study analysis. This would afford the ability to predict transformational leadership impact to like institutions.

2. It is recommended that more detailed instructor demographic questions be added to gain a broader understanding of the leadership experience including the following: years leading, level and time in position(s), and scope and span of control. This could also include the comparison of leadership experience in corporate business.

3. Based on the finding that there was no difference in leadership styles of instructors teaching face-to-face or hybrid classes, it is recommended that online classes be included in a study to extend the comparison of the three delivery modes.

4. An analysis of the impact on policy implications to include faculty development centers, the comparison of leadership development with teaching and learning programs and processes and lastly, what might the impact of tenure and promotion of faculty.

<u>Summary</u>

Community college instructor leadership skills were the focus of this study where the role of the instructor in the classroom is to create an engaged learning environment that is conducive to the highest level of learning possible. This creates an environment where students exercise critical thinking and can apply learning to everyday experiences.

This study has extended the analysis of instructor leadership in the classroom, added to knowledge in the area of transformational leadership in community college classrooms, and applied data gathering and scoring measures developed for the Avolio and Bass (1995) studies of leadership to the classroom/instructor setting. The analysis of instructor leadership experience in the business environment may provide a better understanding of the instructor/student dynamics in the classroom and establish more successful techniques of expanding knowledge. This would provide an understanding of the energy and strategy of relationships in the higher education classroom and give guidance on leadership development.

APPENDIX A
FULL RANGE LEADERSHIP FIGURE CONFIRMATION

145

CLASSROOM

Publisher	University of Central Florida
Expected publication date	Nov 2013
Estimated size (pages)	200

APPENDIX B
THE FLORIDA COLLEGE SYSTEM FACT BOOK GRAPHICS APPROVAL

Fact Book Approval

✕ DELETE   ← REPLY   ⬅ REPLY ALL   → FORWARD   •••

mark as unread

Henderson, Carrie <Carrie.Henderson@fldoe.org>
Mon 4/7/2014 3:58 PM

To: ☐ gloria.hardee@knights.ucf.edu;

Gloria,

You are welcome to use data and recreate graphics for information found in the Florida College System
Fact Books, available at http://www.fldoehub.org/CCTCMIS/c/Pages/default.aspx.

Sincerely,
Carrie

Carrie E. Henderson
Director of Communications & Public Affairs
Division of Florida Colleges
325 W. Gaines Street, Ste. 1554
Tallahassee, Florida 32399
850-245-9903
carrie.henderson@fldoe.org

THE *Florida*
COLLEGE SYSTEM

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Please note: Florida has a very broad public records law. Most written communications to or from state officials regarding
state business are public records available to the public and media upon request. Your e-mail communications may be subject
to public disclosure.

APPENDIX C
MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE PERMISSION

m nd garden

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material;

Instrument: *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*

Authors: *Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

Copyright: *1995 by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

For his/her thesis research.

Five sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material.

Sincerely,

Robert Most
Mind Garden,
Inc.
www.mindgard
en.com

APPENDIX D
PRELIMINARY PERMISSION TO CONDUCT THE STUDY

February 20, 2014

Gloria Hardee
8903 Lake Mabel Dr.
Orlando, FL 32836

Dear Gloria,

Thank you for your call today sharing insights about your proposed study to examine transformational leadership behaviors among faculty members and student engagement. Through my office of Institutional Effectiveness and Research, the College is pleased to assist you in your study. Please communicate with my office when you would like to begin steps to complete a review for Institutional Review Board requirements and on any other aspect of your study.

Please be advised that your protocol and methodology must be reviewed by Seminole State's IRB, which I will coordinate. Also, I take steps to notify the College's Executive Team and the Academic Leadership Team that a study is pending. You will need approval from all three groups (IRB, Executive Team, and Academic Leadership Team) before gathering data, but I do not anticipate issues or obstacles at this time.

I look forward to hearing from you again; best wishes for continued progress with your study.

Sincerely,

Associate Vice President, Institutional Effectiveness

APPENDIX E
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL COMMUNITY COLLEGE X

Gloria Hardee IRB For Community College X

Tue 5/6/2014 3:16 PM
To: 'Gloria Hardee' <Gloria.Hardee@knights.ucf.edu>;

Gloria,

Thumbs up on your proposal from our IRB and Exec Team – please proceed with data gathering through the Assistant Dean.

Let me know if you need anything else – good luck!

AVP, Institutional Effectiveness and Research
Read to Succeed: I am reading *The Thief* by Clive Cussler.

APPENDIX F
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL
UNIVERSITY OF CENTRAL FLORIDA

University of Central Florida Institutional Review Board
Office of Research & Commercialization
12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501
Orlando, Florida 32826-3246
Telephone: 407-823-2901 or 407-882-2276
www.research.ucf.edu/compliance/irb.html

Approval of Exempt Human Research

From: **UCF Institutional Review Board #1**
          FWA00000351, IRB00001138

To: **Gloria A. Hardee**

Date: **May 20, 2014**

Dear Researcher:

On 5/20/2014, the IRB approved the following activity as human participant research that is exempt from regulation:

>   Type of Review: Exempt Determination
>   Project Title: Community College Faculty with Corporate Leadership
>   Experience and Full Range Leadership Theory
>   Investigator: Gloria A. Hardee
>   IRB Number: SBE-14-10301
>   Funding Agency:
>   Grant Title:
>   Research ID: N/A

        This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made and there are questions about whether these changes affect the exempt status of the human research, please contact the IRB. When you have completed your research, please submit a Study Closure request in iRIS so that IRB records will be accurate.

In the conduct of this research, you are responsible to follow the requirements of the Investigator Manual.

On behalf of Sophia Dziegielewski, Ph.D., L.C.S.W., UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

Kanielle Chap

IRB Coordinator

APPENDIX G
STUDENT LETTER

June, 2014

Student with Community College X
Business Programs Department

Dear Business Programs Department Student,

My name is Gloria Hardee and I am a doctoral student with University of Central Florida with the Higher Education Leadership program. Community College X is supporting my doctoral study of original research for educational development with the Business Programs department. In a few weeks, you will be requested to help me conduct a research study. This study is part of my dissertation to learn what factors impact student engagement and faculty effectiveness in the classroom.

You have been selected to be included in our random sample for conducting this study since you are enrolled in courses within the Business Programs Department at Community College X. I want you to know that I highly value your contribution. The questions should only take about 15-20 minutes to complete. You will be provided a hard copy of the survey and the consent form during class. Your responses are voluntary and will be kept confidential. This study has been reviewed and approved by the Community College X and University of Central Florida Institutional Review Boards.

Thank you so much for your time and consideration. Without participation from our students like you, our study would not be possible. If you have any questions, comments or concerns regarding the study, I am happy to discuss them with you. All of my contact information is available in the signature block below. Or, for other questions, contact the UCF Institutional Review Board at 407-823-2901.

Thank you very much for participating in this study.

Sincerely,
Gloria Hardee
Doctoral Student
University of Central Florida
Gloria.Hardee@Knights.ucf.edu
407-256-4003

APPENDIX H
INSTRUCTOR LETTER

June, 2014

Instructors with Community College X
Business Programs Department

Dear Instructors for the Business Department of Community College X,

My name is Gloria Hardee and I am a doctoral student with University of Central Florida with the Higher Education Leadership program. Community College X is supporting my doctoral study of original research for educational development with the Business Programs department. This will enable me to learn what factors impact student engagement and faculty effectiveness in the classroom.

I want you to know that I highly value your contribution. You and your student population have been selected to participate in this study. The survey should only take about 15-20 minutes to complete. You will be provided a hard copy of the survey and consent form during class. All responses are voluntary and will be kept confidential. This study has been reviewed and approved by the Community College X and University of Central Florida Institutional Review Boards.

Thank you so much for your time and consideration. Without participation from instructors like you, this study would not be possible. If you have any questions, comments or concerns regarding the study, I am happy to discuss them with you. All of my contact information is available in the signature block below. Or, for other questions, contact the UCF Institutional Review Board at 407-823-2901.

Thank you very much for participating in this study.

Sincerely,
Gloria Hardee
Doctoral Student
University of Central Florida
Gloria.Hardee@Knights.ucf.edu
407-256-4003

APPENDIX I
SCHEDULING EMAIL TO INSTRUCTORS

Gloria Hardee <Gloria.Hardee@knights.ucf.edu>
Tue 6/24/2014 7:46 PM
Dissertation; Sent Items
To: Professor for Community College X
Cc: Gloria Hardee;

Hello Professor,

 I am sending you my schedule for doing surveys in your classroom the second week of July. I want to make sure these times work for you.

There are two classes I am hoping to survey.

    Location: Community College X
    Day: Monday
    Date: July 7th
    Time: 6:00pm
    Type: Face to face

    The second class is a hybrid and I wanted to find out if you are meeting face to face on the following date. If not, when will be the next opportunity to survey your students?

   Location: Community College X
    Day: Wednesday
    Date: July 9th
    Time: 6:00pm
  Type: Hybrid

    The survey should only take about 10-15 minutes to complete.

    Thank you so much for your time and consideration. Without participation from instructors like you, this study would not be possible. If you have any questions, comments or concerns regarding the study, I am happy to discuss them with you. All of my contact information is available in the signature block below.
    Thank you very much for participating in this study.

    Gloria Hardee
    Doctoral Student
    University of Central Florida
    Gloria.Hardee@Knights.ucf.edu
    407-256-4003

APPENDIX J
INSTRUCTOR INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Community College X

INFORMED CONSENT

Dear Instructor,

I am conducting a study to determine factors that impact student engagement and effectiveness in the classroom. In this study, you will be asked to fill out a survey. Your participation should take about 15 minutes. There are no risks to you.

The class ID number will be used to identify the instructor/student relationship. All information will be handled in a strictly confidential manner. The class section numbers will be used with the intention that no one will be able to identify you when the results are reported.

Your participation in this study is totally voluntary and you may withdraw at any time without negative consequences. If you wish to withdraw at any time during the study, simply inform the researcher.

Please feel free to contact Gloria Hardee, Doctoral Student with University of Central Florida at 407-256-4003 if you have any questions about the study. Or, for other questions, contact Community College X's Director of Institutional Research, Dr. Rosa Cintrón, Faculty Advisor at 407-823-1248 or UCF Institutional Review Board at 407-823-2901.

_____

Participants must sign and date the agreement:
I understand the study described above and have been given a copy of the description as outlined above. I am 18 years of age or older and I agree to participate.

_____
Signature of Participant   Date

APPENDIX K
STUDENT INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Community College X

INFORMED CONSENT

Dear Student,

I am conducting a study to determine factors that impact student engagement and effectiveness in the classroom. In this study, you will be asked to fill out a survey. Your participation should take about 15 minutes. There are no risks to you.

The class ID number will be used to identify the instructor/student relationship. All information will be handled in a strictly confidential manner. The class section numbers will be used with the intention that no one will be able to identify you when the results are reported.

Your participation in this study is totally voluntary and you may withdraw at any time without negative consequences. If you wish to withdraw at any time during the study, simply inform the researcher.

Please feel free to contact Gloria Hardee, Doctoral Student with University of Central Florida at 407-256-4003 if you have any questions about the study. Or, for other questions, contact Community College X's Director of Institutional Research, Dr. Rosa Cintrón, Faculty Advisor at 407-823-1248 or UCF Institutional Review Board at 407-823-2901.

_____

Participants must sign and date the agreement:

I understand the study described above and have been given a copy of the description as outlined above. I am 18 years of age or older and I agree to participate.

_____
Signature of Participant   Date

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